

# **FACILITIES FOR EDUCATION IN RURAL AREAS**

## **A COMPARATIVE STUDY**

**AFGHANISTAN, ALBANIA, AUSTRALIA, AUSTRIA, BELGIUM, BRAZIL,  
BULGARIA, BYELORUSSIA, CAMBODIA, CANADA, CEYLON, CHILE,  
COLOMBIA, CUBA, CZECHOSLOVAKIA, DOMINICAN REPUBLIC,  
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GREECE, GUATEMALA, HONDURAS, HUNGARY, ICELAND, INDIA,  
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PAKISTAN, PANAMA, PARAGUAY, PERU, PHILIPPINES, POLAND,  
PORTUGAL, ROMANIA, SALVADOR, SPAIN, SWEDEN, SWITZERLAND,  
SYRIA, THAILAND, TUNISIA, TURKEY, UKRAINE, UNION OF BURMA,  
UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS,  
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## INTRODUCTION

Generally speaking, people living in the country still have to be satisfied with a lower standard of education than that enjoyed by city dwellers. The following study provides considerable information on the stage this problem has reached in the middle of the XXth century.

In the first place, it shows that only countries which are relatively very advanced possess an educational system which can provide complete primary education for children in rural areas. These countries probably comprise about a third of the world's population. Elsewhere, children living outside towns either do not go to school at all or else can only attend schools where teaching does not cover more than two, three or four years' study.

This situation obviously depends first of all of the standard of economic and social development in the different countries. It seems, however, that it may also be attributed in a certain measure to the method of organizing instruction in one-teacher schools. Indeed, as is stated later : " Historically, the complete one-teacher school was (and to a great extent still is) the means of integrating the countryside into the national educational system, but in its incomplete form it may lead, on the contrary, to a permanent cultural rift between rural areas and the rest of the country ".

In all the countries which answered the inquiry, efforts are being made to bridge the gap between rural inhabitants and others in the sphere of education. It is firstly a matter of justice, since this is obviously a gross form of cultural discrimination, but it is also because ignorance in one section of the population impedes the solution of all the nation's problems, particularly as regards increased production and a raised standard of living. The following pages allow a comparison to be made between the conditions prevailing and the methods adopted for this work in the different countries.

We should like to thank all those who contributed to this inquiry : in the first place, the education authorities of the 71 countries who answered the questionnaire, and also the secretariat of the International Bureau of Education who helped in the analysis of the replies.

Roger GIROD

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# QUESTIONNAIRE ADDRESSED TO THE MINISTRIES OF EDUCATION

## I. ADMINISTRATION

1. Is there any special administrative body responsible for organizing education in rural zones (for example : department or section within a higher administrative organ, rural school inspectorate, etc.)? If so, please state its principal characteristics.
2. Kindly indicate the criteria that may be used to demarcate the zones where provisions governing education of the rural type are applied and urban areas, and, if possible, the percentage of the population in rural zones in relation to the population of the whole country.

## II. ORGANIZATION

3. What are the differences, if any, between schools in urban areas and schools (or certain of them) in rural areas, as regards :
  - (a) the aims assigned to education by legal enactments ;
  - (b) the number of years' compulsory schooling and the ages at which such compulsory schooling begins and ends ;
  - (c) the annual number of class hours ;
  - (d) the number of class hours per day ;
  - (e) the percentage of enrolments for each of the school years in relation to the child population of the same age ;
  - (f) the number of pupils per teacher ?
4. Kindly indicate if, *within the compulsory education system*, your country has any post-primary continuation or further education courses, secondary education establishments, vocational or agricultural schools, etc., intended specially for pupils leaving the primary schools in rural areas.

## III. CURRICULA, SYLLABUSES, METHODS

5. (a) What are the differences, if any, between the curricula of rural schools and those of urban schools with regard to the number and nomenclature of the subjects taught ?
  - (b) Is the number of hours allotted to each subject the same in country as in town schools ? If not, what are the differences ?
  - (c) Are the various items figuring in the syllabus of each subject the same in town and country ? If not, please indicate clearly the differences.
  - (d) Are the suggestions or directions concerning methods to be employed in rural schools, particularly with regard to adaptation to environment, the same as those prescribed for urban schools ? If not, please indicate clearly the differences.
  - (e) If there are special textbooks for rural schools, kindly indicate what are the subjects concerned and state briefly in what way the textbooks are different.

<sup>1</sup> This inquiry concerns school establishments in rural zones in so far as they differ from those in urban areas and come within the compulsory education system.

#### IV. TEACHING STAFF

6. Are there any differences between conditions for teachers in urban areas and those in rural areas, in particular with regard to :
  - (a) the nature of the establishments in which they are trained (e.g. special rural teacher training schools or colleges, or the same training schools or colleges for all teacher trainees);
  - (b) the length of studies in these teacher training establishments;
  - (c) the opportunities for further professional training;
  - (d) the number of previous years' study and the diplomas or certificates required for admission to the teacher training schools or other establishments providing a professional training;
  - (e) the appointment procedure for teachers in urban and rural areas (qualifications required, etc.);
  - (f) the salaries offered and special allowances in cash and in kind;
  - (g) the possibility for a rural teacher to be transferred to a town and vice versa ?

#### V. ACTION AIMED AT PROVIDING EQUAL EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES

7. If conditions differ from those in urban areas, kindly describe the social assistance (school meals, clothing services, allowances, etc.) which is provided for children in rural areas.
8. Kindly indicate whether, and in what proportion, the system of "one-teacher schools" or the system of schools with a limited number of teachers under which all the children of a small school are nevertheless enabled to complete the full curriculum of the compulsory education period, is in operation in rural areas.
9. Kindly indicate whether there is a tendency to concentrate pupils from several rural districts in school centres (central schools, for example), thus allowing, among other advantages, each class to have its own teacher. If this is the case, please indicate whether the system of boarding schools or of the daily transport of pupils is preferred.
10. Kindly indicate whether use is made of school broadcasting or teaching by correspondence, in order to provide education for children in isolated areas. Kindly describe the main characteristics of these activities.

#### VI. MISCELLANEOUS

11. Kindly add any supplementary information that you may deem useful.
12. If possible, kindly add to your reply :
  - (a) the curricula and syllabuses of rural primary schools in cases where these differ from those in urban schools;
  - (b) a selection of the studies and statistics published in your country on the problem of rural education in general and on questions concerning differences of physical and mental development, attitudes, etc., between children in rural areas and children of other regions;
  - (c) any other documents of particular interest in connection with this question.

# GENERAL SURVEY

## SPECIAL ADMINISTRATIVE BODIES

The first paragraph of the questionnaire asked the various countries to state if any special administrative body was responsible for education in rural areas, and if so, to describe its constitution.

Generally speaking, both urban and rural schools come under the same administrative departments.

In only a few countries, most of which are Latin American, do rural schools come under more or less distinct administrative departments from those dealing with urban schools.

Basic education centres, as is noted particularly in the answers from Ecuador, Guatemala and Peru, are often attached in some way or another to the special department for rural education and are a driving force in the application of its programmes. In these cases, the administrative department is concerned not only with education in the usual sense of the word, but also with stimulating and planning progress (economics, hygiene, literacy and culture) in rural communities.

Where educational administration is decentralized, as in the United States, Scotland or Switzerland, some educational districts will obviously be wholly rural, or almost so. This is in some sort another way of placing the development of schools in the most markedly rural areas under the care of particularly competent authorities. But this is the exception in industrialized countries, where local communities traditionally undertake wide responsibilities.

The following table summarizes the replies sent by the different countries on this question.

*Afghanistan.* No special administrative body, but the primary education department is particularly in charge of rural education.

*Albania. Australia.* No special administrative body.

*Austria.* An office of experts for rural education, and engineers specially seconded to deal with rural schools at the provincial level. •

*Belgium.* No special administrative body.

*Brazil.* Some states have a special branch for rural schools.

*Bulgaria. Byelorussia. Cambodia. Canada. Ceylon.* No special administrative body.

*Chile.* There is a special department of the Ministry of Education specially for primary farm-schools. Other rural primary schools come under general inspectors and regional departments.

*Colombia.* There is a special branch of the Ministry of Education to deal with rural schools. •

*Cuba.* General department for rural education within the Ministry of Education.

*Czechoslovakia.* No special administrative body.

## GENERAL SURVEY

*Dominican Republic.* Rural schools are under the control of certain special offices and officials.

*Ecuador.* A department for rural education within the Ministry of Education.

*Egypt.* No special administrative body. However, a special branch of the Ministry of Education deals with agricultural schools.

*Finland.* No special administrative body. However, rural primary inspectors come under the State and town inspectors come under the municipality concerned. In addition, each school is run by a local committee elected by the district council.

*France. German Federal Republic.* No special administrative body.

*Greece.* No special administrative body. However, a new department has just been set up to study a programme specially intended for rural areas.

*Guatemala.* Special general department within the Ministry of Education.

*Honduras.* A special branch of the primary education department is in charge of rural schools.

*Hungary. Iceland. India. Indonesia.* No special administrative body.

*Iran.* A special body within the Ministry of National Education deals with agricultural and rural education in collaboration with the bodies engaged in advancing the country's technical progress.

*Iraq. Ireland.* No special administrative body.

*Israel.* No special administrative body, but a certain number of organizations outside the government are closely concerned in rural education, with the support of the State (integration of young immigrants in agriculture, kibbutzim, etc.).

*Italy. Japan.* No special administrative body.

*Korea.* Schools are governed by the districts.

*Laos.* No special administrative body. However, schools for rural training in outlying areas come under a special system.

*Lebanon. Liberia. Malaya.* No special administrative body.

*Morocco.* A special department of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports deals with agricultural education in rural primary schools.

*Netherlands. New Zealand. Norway. Pakistan. Panama. Paraguay.* No special administrative body.

*Peru.* Rural education and literacy department within the Ministry of Education.

*Philippines. Poland.* No special administrative body.

*Rumania. Salvador. Spain. Sweden. Switzerland.* No special administrative body.

*Syria.* Rural education department within the Ministry of Education.

*Thailand. Tunisia. Turkey. Ukraine. Union of Burma. Union of South Africa. USSR. United Kingdom.* No special administrative body.

*United States.* No special administrative body. Direct administration of schools within the school district. Some of these districts are purely rural, many cover both rural and urban areas.

*Uruguay.* Branch for rural education within the technical department for primary education.

*Vietnam. Yugoslavia.* No special administrative body.

## CRITERIA USED TO DEMARCATE ZONES WHERE PROVISIONS GOVERNING RURAL EDUCATION ARE APPLIED

It may be interesting to compare the criteria used to mark off rural zones from the rest of the country, particularly as regards educational

administration. In many countries, this classification is made on the basis of the number of inhabitants in towns or districts, but the dividing line adopted varies considerably according to the demographic and geographical structure of the country. In one country any group of less than 20,000 inhabitants is considered rural, whereas in another a zone inhabited by more than 500 people is already regarded as urban.

Elsewhere, types of administration are the deciding factor: communities governed by a municipality are urban, those which come under a district council are rural.

Still other countries put foremost the type of economic activity: communities living mainly by the land are rural, sometimes even where a town is concerned, as is often the case in the countries of the Middle East for example.

Lastly, countries such as Chile, USSR and Uruguay take into account a combination of several factors, demographic, geographical, economic and social, to determine the urban or rural character of an area.

A comparison of these different methods shows clearly that the usual distinction between rural and urban zones is extremely vague. How could it be otherwise? There are many types of land communities in each country, differentiated by climate, soil fertility, density of population and its oecological distribution, economic activity and traditions. Between the large villages and hamlets which these communities comprise and small towns the line is hard to trace, especially as regards difficulties experienced by the population in instructing young people. As far as the towns are concerned the variety in the situation is no less great. The evidence suggests that theories as to the educational needs of "rural" and "urban" populations are always inevitably very artificial. It is extremely difficult to establish their relationship to definite facts, especially in the case of international comparisons.

The following table summarizes the criteria mentioned.

*Brazil.* Criteria used are the geographical distribution of the population, means of transport and the nature of the local economy.

*Ceylon.* The criterion of demarcation is the type of administration. Localities with municipal councils are urban, those administered by village councils are rural.

*Colombia.* The size and density of the population and its main occupations are taken into consideration.

*Chile.* The main considerations in deciding whether to apply provisions for rural or urban education in a given place are the economic, social and cultural characteristics of the community, its position as regards lines of communication, the proportion of illiterates and the number of pupils.

*Dominican Republic.* Type of administration. Districts with municipal administration are considered urban.

*Egypt.* Type of occupation. Communities where the principal occupations are agriculture and village crafts are considered rural.

*France.* Number of inhabitants. Communes of less than 2,000 inhabitants are considered rural.

*German Federal Republic.* Number of inhabitants. Places with less than 10,000 inhabitants are considered rural.

*Greece.* Number of inhabitants. Places with less than 2,000 inhabitants are considered rural, those with 2,000 to 10,000, semi-rural.

*Iceland.* Number of inhabitants. A distinction is made between rural areas (less than 300 inhabitants), villages (more than 300 inhabitants) and towns.

*Korea.* Number of inhabitants.

*Netherlands.* Number of inhabitants. Districts with less than 20,000 inhabitants are generally rural.

*Paraguay.* Except for the capital the whole country is considered rural.

*Peru.* Geographical situation and occupations. Are considered as rural not only the country itself, but also those urban centres where the population lives almost exclusively by the cultivation of the surrounding land.

*Spain.* Number of inhabitants. Places with less 500 inhabitants are considered rural.

*Thailand.* Type of administration. Districts with municipal administration are considered urban.

*Tunisia.* Type of occupation. Areas whose economy is concerned with commerce and industry are called urban, those whose economy is agricultural and maritime are called rural.

*Turkey.* Type of administration and number of inhabitants. The rural programme is applied in districts without municipal administration and with less than 2,000 inhabitants.

*USSR.* Number of inhabitants, economic activity and the most efficient type of organization for the area.

*United States.* Number of inhabitants. Places with less than 2,000 inhabitants are considered rural. The population is subdivided into farm population and others.

*Uruguay.* Demographic characteristics and economic activity.

#### DIFFERENCES IN ORGANIZATION

This part of the inquiry concerned the differences between rural and urban schools as regards the aims assigned to education in legislative texts, the length of compulsory education and the age at which it begins and ends, the number of hours' instruction per day and per year, the percentage of enrolments for each age group and the number of pupils per teacher.

It is rare for legislative texts and other official statements of basic educational standards to make any distinction between rural and urban schools. These documents usually expound general principles applicable everywhere and to everyone without distinction. Education laws in some countries, however, while setting forth rules of this type for general culture, state that rural education tends towards agricultural activities and urban education towards industry in the broad sense of the word.

In other countries, the same difference appears in fact, without, however, being based on legal principles.

All details of educational organization in rural areas are far from being the result of a deliberate attempt to adapt and improve the work of the school. Mostly, indeed, they are due to the pressure of circumstances, which tend to render the rural school incomplete and so to deprive country children of the chance of a normal primary education and subsequent easy progress to secondary education. In countries where this position



to find the population is largely rural. Schools for children from non-urban areas have sometimes only two classes; cases where they have only 3 or 4 are frequent. About 20 countries give figures of this nature and many reports which simply state that there is no difference between town and country as regards the length of primary education are obviously referring to the principles laid down in laws and regulations rather than to the situation in practice.

It must be noted too that in countries where the actual length of schooling is shorter in the towns than in the country the children in rural areas do not all attend school, far from it. The objective information supplied on this point by some reports allows an estimate of the proportion of country children not attending school: one country quotes a figure of 80%, another 50%.

On a basis of the information supplied by the inquiry, one may reach certain general hypotheses which tend to show that countries where all normal children in rural areas go to the primary school and stay there for as many years as those in towns constitute about a third of the total world population, and only a very much smaller fraction of the rural population of the earth. These are in fact the most industrialized countries.

Everywhere else, the rural masses benefit as yet to a very limited extent from the advantages of rural education.

The above-mentioned facts are summarized in the following table, together with information on other aspects of differences between rural and urban schools from the point of view of educational organization (in particular, length of the school year, daily time-table, number of pupils per teacher).

*Afghanistan.* No systematic differences. Where primary schools of the official type (6 years) have not yet been set up, instruction is given in "village schools" (3 years). These schools represent 58% of the total. In these areas the percentage of enrolments is 20% instead of the 58% average for the country as a whole.

*Albania.* No difference in aims and general organization. In towns and some rural areas the seven-year school is compulsory. In mountain districts the school year goes from March to November. The number of pupils per teacher in the country is 29 on an average; there are sometimes only 15. Percentage of enrolments in rural zones is about 75%.

*Australia.* No difference in principle but in practice important variations due to geographical conditions.

*Austria, Belgium.* No difference.

*Brazil.* Educational aims are fundamentally the same, but they are adapted to environment, and in one state where this adaptation is particularly marked, rural education is specifically linked with the social and economic development of the community. The length of study is generally 5 years, but only 3 in rural areas.

*Bulgaria.* No difference.

*Byelorussia.* No difference. Pupils are taught in the village up to the seventh year.

*Cambodia.* No systematic difference. In general, more pupils per class in the country.

*Canada.* No difference, with some exceptions as regards the age for beginning and ending compulsory schooling.

*Ceylon.* No major differences. Rural school time-tables go from 8 a.m. to 1.30 p.m. without a break, whereas in urban schools there are lessons in the morning and the afternoon with an hour's break at noon. It is interesting to note, however, the existence of "estate schools" run by land owners the pupils of which (generally non-nationals) often go out to work before the end of the compulsory school period.

*Chile.* Rural schools have special aims in addition to those common to all schools. These are: agricultural training, development of rural communities. They generally cover four years of study.

*Colombia.* The main aims of education are the same but there are differences of detail (training for agriculture or industry). Urban primary schools lead on to secondary education. Studies in them last 5 years; in rural schools 4 years (in some cases 2 years). In addition, time-tables are sometimes cut by half in the country: half for girls and the other half for boys.

*Cuba.* Legislative texts make no mention of this point but the special aim of rural schools is to encourage the development of agrarian communities. Same number of years' compulsory schooling and hours' instruction. Rural educational missions can draw upon the services of technicians, doctors, etc. Rate of enrolment about 30%.

*Czechoslovakia.* In small districts schools only cover the first five years of the general course and have a reduced teaching staff. From the sixth year onwards pupils go to nearby schools or to boarding schools.

*Dominican Republic.* Rural schools cover only five years of study (3 years in small villages), urban schools six years, plus two years intermediate education. Plans exist for extending rural education to seven years.

*Ecuador.* Rural education is directed towards agriculture and linked with basic education and community development. It lasts four years. In urban schools education takes six years and has a different, more academic bias. Rate of enrolment in rural areas, about 50%.

*Egypt.* No difference at primary level. At post-primary level there are agricultural schools.

*Finland.* No marked difference.

*France.* No difference of principle.

*German Federal Republic.* No difference except for certain adaptations of detail. In the country, however, the number of pupils per teacher may vary from 6 to 55.

*Greece.* No difference.

*Guatemala.* The aim of rural education is to encourage community development at the same time as instructing the children. The length of compulsory education is six years everywhere, but many rural schools have only three classes. Enrolments vary from 50 to 100% according to the area.

*Honduras.* Urban education is directed towards industrial activity, rural education towards agriculture.

*Hungary.* No difference in principle but in the country in schools with a small staff the time-table is not the same as in the town.

*Iceland.* No difference of principle but great differences in practice because of the climate. Children in areas of scattered habitation generally finish their education at 14 instead of 15 and begin it at 8-10 years old instead of 7. In many of these areas the school is a travelling one and pupils receive instruction for only three or four months each year. More and more boarding schools are being built. Parents also collaborate with teachers in the instruction of their children.

*India. Indonesia.* No difference.

*Iran.* In a small number of rural primary schools the aim of education from the fifth year onwards is to train good farmers. Other rural primary schools give a general education of the same type as that given in towns.

*Iraq.* No difference of principle. However, out of every 100 children at school 80 live in towns and 20 in the country. The rate of enrolment is on an average 50%.

*Ireland. Israel. Italy. Japan. Korea.* No marked difference.

*Laos.* No difference for ordinary schools, but there is a special system for rural training centres (stressing improvement of living conditions and the presence of adults). Rate of enrolment, about 25%.

*Lebanon. Liberia. Luxembourg. Malaya.* No difference.

*Morocco.* No essential differences.

*Netherlands. New Zealand.* No difference.

*Norway.* Town and country primary schools are governed by two slightly differing laws, but the aims and general organization of education are the same. The annual number of class hours is greater in the town; the number of pupils per teacher is 29 in the country and 25 in the town.

*Pakistan.* No difference in principle. Compulsory schooling, however, is implemented mainly in the towns. The percentage of children attending school is much lower in rural areas than in towns.

*Panama.* No difference in principle, but the difficulties of the situation in practice make it inevitable that the course in one-teacher schools, which represent four fifths of the total, should be incomplete.

*Paraguay.* There are three types of primary school (3, 5 and 6 years). The three-year schools (60% of the total) are found for the most part in particularly rural areas. Pupils from these schools may continue their education and complete their compulsory schooling in five and six-year schools which are distributed geographically with this in mind.

*Peru.* Educational aims are the same as regards general culture but the technical side of instruction has an agricultural bias in rural schools and an industrial tendency in urban schools. There are three types of rural primary school (2, 3 and 5 years) plus *núcleos escolares* and rural pre-vocational schools.

*Philippines.* No essential differences. Adaptation to environment.

*Poland.* No difference of principle: schools have four classes in sparsely populated areas, five, six and seven elsewhere.

*Portugal.* No difference.

*Rumania.* The aims and organization of education (time-tables, etc.) are everywhere the same. Education is compulsory everywhere for the first four years; in 1955-1956 it was made compulsory also in the fifth and seventh classes in towns, industrial centres and principal towns of districts.

*Salvador.* No difference.

*Spain.* No fundamental differences, but rural schools are always one-teacher schools and also have classes for adults.

*Sweden.* No difference.

*Switzerland.* No difference except for the fact that in mountain areas schools are sometimes closed in the summer with extra time to compensate for this in the winter.

*Syria.* The aim of rural schools is to help improve living conditions in country areas, but courses are basically the same as in urban schools except for lessons in agriculture.

*Thailand.* No difference.

*Tunisia.* No essential difference. Adaptation to environment.

*Turkey.* No difference in educational aims, the length of compulsory schooling and the number of class hours per day. A slight difference in the number of hours per year. Average rate of enrolment, 64%.

*Ukraine. Union of South Africa.* No difference.

*USSR.* No basic differences; adaptation to environment from grade VIII onwards to prepare pupils for their future work. Hundred percent enrolment up to seven-year education level in the country and up to secondary level in the main towns.

*United Kingdom.* No difference.

*United States.* No difference as regards aims and length of education, except for certain adaptations of detail. Differences in percentage of inscriptions and the number of pupils per teacher are negligible.

*Uruguay.* Different aim: the development of rural life, taking into account its deficiencies in order to encourage the complete development of the pupils' personality.

*Venezuela.* No difference in law.

*Vietnam.* No difference.

*Yugoslavia.* No basic difference. In town compulsory schools have eight classes, in the country four, five or six, and sometimes also eight. There are even village schools with two classes.

#### SPECIAL COURSES FOR PUPILS FROM RURAL AREAS WHO HAVE LEFT THE PRIMARY SCHOOL AND ARE STILL OF COMPULSORY SCHOOL AGE

In this particular there are two main cases: (1) Pupils leave the primary school without finishing the complete period of compulsory schooling, either because this is not very strictly enforced or because the establishments open to them in practice have only a limited number of classes. (2) Pupils live in areas where compulsory schooling extends beyond the primary stage in the precise sense of the term.

To what extent are substitute courses, more or less reduced, provided for pupils in the first case (who are, as we have seen, numerous in the rural areas of many less fortunate countries) until the network of primary schools can be extended?

Do country children in the second case receive the same secondary education as town children, or a special type of instruction with a somewhat vocational bias?

Examination of the summary of replies given below will show that it is largely the second point which has been mentioned; few details have been supplied of the first, which is nevertheless of prime importance. Some countries, however, do mention special complementary courses, either already in existence or at the planning stage, for children from rural areas who cannot attend the primary school in the usual way.

*Australia.* All the federated states provide, within the compulsory education system, opportunities for post-primary education for children in rural areas (various establishments, correspondence teaching).

*Austria.* There are a certain number of complementary rural schools and also upper primary schools.

*Canada.* Centralized rural secondary schools, with bus transport of pupils in the best organized areas.

*Cuba.* Rural centres for boys (resident) provide facilities for post-primary education for young people in the country.

*Ecuador.* Post-primary continuation courses.

*Finland.* Continuation courses compulsory everywhere.

*France.* Compulsory agricultural education for farmers' children from 14 to 17 years of age who are not taking any other course.

*German Federal Republic.* Part-time vocational schools for pupils not attending other secondary establishments. Many varied steps to ensure that country children may attend secondary schools more easily.

*Guatemala.* Children living in areas where the primary school is incomplete may in principle continue their education in main towns of districts.

*Iran.* The possible introduction of special courses for young country people who cannot attend school normally is being studied.

*Israel.* Compulsory evening classes for young people from 14 to 17 years old; agricultural bias in rural areas.

*Malaya.* Rural vocational schools.

*Morocco.* Practical rural schools for pupils over 14 years of age and a rural training centre for sons of farmers.

*New Zealand.* Children in urban areas generally go on to secondary and technical schools, while those in the country go to district high schools which form the secondary department of primary schools. Syllabuses are the same on the whole but teaching methods are adapted to the environment.

*Paraguay.* Evening classes for pupils whose primary education has been interrupted and who are trying to complete it.

*Poland.* Pupils leaving schools with less than seven classes go to a neighbouring school to complete their primary schooling.

*Sweden.* Compulsory continuation courses for vocational training (with a rural bias in the country) for pupils leaving school after the seventh year of general compulsory education.

*Switzerland.* In most rural areas there are compulsory continuation courses for young people of 15 to 18 years.

*Thailand.* Complementary and vocational education for children in rural areas leaving the primary school.

*Ukraine. USSR.* The length of schooling is being progressively increased in the country to reach complete compulsory secondary education for all in 1960. In 1956-1957, out of 100 pupils in grades VIII to X, about 46 live in rural areas, whereas the proportion is about 60 up to grade VII. Instruction in rural general schools is directed towards agricultural activities in the case of practical work and the study of production.

*United Kingdom.* England and Wales : secondary agricultural education in rural schools, special courses for the year following the end of compulsory education.

*United States.* Rural secondary schools in less densely populated rural districts are generally less complete than others. Agricultural crafts are stressed in rural vocational schools.

## CURRICULA, SYLLABUSES, METHODS AND TEXTBOOKS

Generally speaking, the over-all curriculum and syllabuses of the various subjects are the same in town and country.

Agricultural courses and practical courses to introduce rural pupils to the work of the countryside appear, however, in the rural education courses of many countries (more than half the reports mention them). Time for these activities is sometimes obtained by cutting out or reducing the time devoted to physical training, music, science, mechanics, etc. In some countries practical work is supplemented by courses in agricultural concerns (town pupils take similar courses in factories).

Wherever primary education is in fact shorter in rural areas than in others, country school courses are obviously schematized or curtailed. This is also often the case in rural schools with a small staff, as is pointed out in several reports.

As a very large majority of country children attend either one-teacher schools or primary establishments covering only a limited number of years' study, it follows that rural pupils receiving the complete course of education are still the exception in the world today.

A certain number of countries state that although courses and methods are basically very similar in rural schools and urban schools, the material chosen to illustrate lessons is as far as possible drawn from local surroundings.

About one tenth of the replies state that special textbooks are drawn up for rural education, in particular for initiation to agricultural activities.

The following summary gives the main points mentioned in the reports of the various countries on differences, where they exist, between rural and urban zones as regards curricula, syllabuses, instructions as to method and textbooks.

*Afghanistan.* No difference in the basic syllabus or the time-table. In rural schools, however, the stress is on the teaching of agriculture and local crafts. Methods are also adapted to environment: more manual work and concrete observations. Special textbooks for village schools.

*Albania.* No systematic differences. Stress on practical agriculture in the country.

*Australia.* Syllabuses are based on the same principles, but methods vary with geographical conditions. Stress on agriculture in rural areas. Textbooks are the same everywhere.

*Austria.* No essential differences, but adaptation to environment.

*Belgium.* No difference, but adaptation to environment in the choice of lesson illustrations. Slight variations for domestic science schools.

*Brazil.* No fundamental differences. In rural schools, instruction in the principles of agriculture, etc., is added to the usual course. No special textbooks.

*Bulgaria.* No difference.

*Byelorussia.* No difference; adaptation to environment in the choice of concrete examples for illustrating lessons.

*Cambodia.* No systematic differences. Special pamphlets have been published for the teaching of agriculture and hygiene in rural localities.

*Canada.* No basic differences; slight variations from district to district.

*Ceylon.* No major differences. Only more time for agricultural teaching in rural schools which have plots for cultivation and more science in urban courses.

*Chile.* Adaptation of syllabuses to environment and condensed courses in rural schools. Special course in farm-schools.

*Colombia.* In urban schools the course is more complete.

*Cuba.* Special curricula for rural schools in experimental use. Adaptation of methods to local characteristics.

*Czechoslovakia.* No difference. Adaptation of subject matter presentation to local conditions.

*Dominican Republic.* No essential differences except for agriculture (from the 4th year onwards).

*Ecuador.* Same principles but with adaptation to environment.

*Egypt.* Same syllabuses except for agricultural subjects and practical work.

*Finland.* No basic differences. Adaptation to environment for some subjects, especially in continuation courses. Some textbooks are also adapted to local conditions.

*France.* No essential differences. Adaptation to environment.

*German Federal Republic.* No basic differences; in small rural schools, however, instruction is more rudimentary.

*Greece.* No difference, no special textbooks. However, as rural schools are generally one-teacher schools, in practice the whole course cannot be covered.

*Guatemala.* No difference in the list of subjects, but neither content nor methods are the same in town and country.

*Honduras.* A difference in the number of hours devoted to certain subjects. Rural economy is taught in addition in rural primary schools. Strong adaptation of methods to environment.

*Hungary.* The same subjects are taught everywhere. Russian, however, is temporarily left aside in schools with a reduced staff. Time-tables are not the same in these schools as in town. Special instructions for methods issued for teachers in these schools.

*Iceland.* No basic differences. Adaptation to circumstances.

*India. Indonesia.* No difference.

*Iran.* In the great majority of rural and urban schools syllabuses are the same with adaptation of details to the environment. In a small number of rural schools agriculture has a special place in the fifth and sixth years. For these classes special textbooks are published.

*Iraq.* No difference. Adaptation of methods to environment.

*Ireland.* No basic differences. Adaptation to environment. Certain textbooks are specially designed for rural schools.

*Israel.* No essential differences. Adaptation to environment. No special textbooks, but anthologies and similar works intended for rural schools usually have a particular type of content.

*Italy.* No difference. Global and activity methods without distinction between subjects up to the fifth year. Adaptation to environment. Free choice of textbooks.

*Japan.* No difference.

*Korea.* No difference in subject matter. Schools are free to devote a varying number of hours to each subject, within a fixed maximum and minimum. As a result, distribution is generally different in town and country. Staff are encouraged to adapt their teaching to environment.

*Laos.* In rural training centres the stress is on agriculture, hygiene, etc.

*Lebanon. Liberia. Luxembourg. Malaya.* No difference.

*Morocco.* No essential differences. Adaptation of methods and centres of interest to environment. Three hours' agricultural instruction a week at intermediate level in rural schools. Two special handbooks have been published for rural teachers.

*Netherlands.* No difference.

*New Zealand.* No fundamental differences. Adaptation to environment in subject matter presentation.

*Norway.* No marked difference in syllabuses. Instructions to teachers vary slightly (adaptation to environment).

*Pakistan.* No difference in principle.

*Panama.* No difference in principle, but in practice four fifths of the schools can offer only a reduced course.

*Paraguay. Peru. Philippines.* No essential differences. Adaptation to environment.

*Poland.* No difference, but adaptation to environment for lesson illustration.

*Portugal.* No difference.

*Rumania.* No difference, except for practical work (stress on agriculture in the country).

*Salvador.* No difference.

*Spain.* Same curricula everywhere, but stress on the practical side in rural areas and adaptation of other subjects to environment.

*Sweden.* No difference.

*Switzerland.* No basic differences. Adaptation to environment.

*Syria.* No difference except for lessons in agriculture.

*Thailand.* No difference.

*Tunisia.* No essential differences. Study of rural environment by practical activity (about one hour's gardening a week).

*Turkey.* Agricultural work instead of music and physical training in rural schools. Also certain differences in the number of hours for the various subjects. In addition, adaptation of syllabuses to environment.

*Ukraine.* No difference except for practical work, concrete illustration and initiation to production.

*Union of Burma.* No basic differences. Agriculture and cattle raising figure in the curriculum of some rural primary and secondary schools. Special textbooks for these subjects.

*Union of South Africa.* No difference.

*USSR.* No essential differences. Adaptation to environment as regards initiation to professional life. Preparation courses for life and work are taken in factories and on collective farms. Same textbooks except for those on principles of production and alphabet books.

*United Kingdom.* England and Wales : No essential differences. Adaptation to environment, especially at secondary level. Scotland : No essential differences. Adaptation to environment. Small rural schools, however, find it difficult to provide a complete course. Northern Ireland : No difference.

*United States.* No basic differences. Adaptation to environment.

*Uruguay.* No marked difference in subjects taught. Stress, however, on agriculture in rural schools.

*Venezuela.* No difference in regulations.

*Vietnam.* No fundamental differences. Adaptation to environment.

*Yugoslavia.* No difference up to the fourth year. In rural schools with five or more classes instruction at this level is somewhat simplified. Same textbooks in each constituent republic.

#### TEACHING STAFF

Almost all the Latin American countries which carried out the inquiry have special training schools for rural teachers. About one third of the Asian and African countries which answered the questionnaire also have such schools.

Some replies state that the course is shorter in rural teacher training schools than in others. The qualifications or certificates required for admission to the former are also sometimes lower than those demanded of candidates for the latter.



As regards facilities for further training offered to rural teachers, some reports, from countries at very different stages of development, point out that they are in fact much more limited than opportunities for urban teaching staff.

In some countries correspondence courses, study services, practical courses, special leave, etc., enable rural teachers to fight against this handicap.

Various replies confirm that transfer from country to town is difficult in practice, even when it is possible in principle. In several countries, moreover, it is almost completely excluded by various administrative provisions. Others, however, systematically encourage the movement of teachers from town to country and vice versa, and in particular urge young teachers to gain their first experience in country schools.

Conditions of appointment vary when the training of rural and urban staff is not the same.

Furthermore, several replies point out that in any case the best qualified candidates have priority in obtaining posts in towns. Some reports also mention that teachers with a makeshift training are more often employed in the country than in the town.

A dozen countries state that rural teachers have higher salaries than urban teachers. In an equal number of countries the reverse is the case. In each of these two groups figure countries in very different parts of the world. In several countries in the second group the inequality in salaries is completely or partially compensated by the fact that rural teachers are housed free or at a reduced price, and in addition sometimes enjoy advantages in respect of heating, lighting and a garden for cultivation.

The following table reproduces the main points of the replies on training, further training facilities, conditions of appointment, salaries and possible additional material advantages, and opportunities for transfer from country to town and vice versa.

*Afghanistan.* No difference. Possibility of transfer after two years' service in the same place. Supplementary salary allowances for rural teachers who undertake basic education work in addition to their school teaching.

*Albania.* Same training schools, entrance requirements and conditions of appointment. Candidates from the village concerned are preferred however. Rural teachers have certain salary advantages (from 5 to 15%), plus lodging, heating and allowances for overtime work. Transfer from town to country and vice versa is possible.

*Australia.* No difference. However, in one of the federated states teachers for small rural schools may be trained in one year instead of two. Transfer is usual (teachers generally begin in the country). Basic salaries are identical but in some very isolated areas teachers generally receive special supplementary allowances.

*Austria.* No difference, except for special allowances for teachers in one-teacher schools. Transfer possible.

*Belgium.* No difference in training, official status, salary, etc. Differences in practice as regards facilities for further training. Transfer possible.

*Brazil.* In practice the training of rural teachers is generally less complete than that of urban teachers. Transfer from rural to urban zones is connected with the question of promotion.

*Bulgaria.* No difference except that rural teachers receive free accommodation, heating and lighting and have a piece of land for cultivation. Transfer possible.

*Byelorussia.* No difference except that rural teachers' salaries are lower. However, they have compensatory advantages: free accommodation, heating and light, a garden and tax deductions.

*Cambodia.* No difference, but the situation may change as a result of the recent introduction of a new rural type of teacher training school.

*Canada.* Identical training, higher salaries in towns (however, tendency towards equality in the best organized areas). As a result of this difference the best qualified teachers often obtain urban posts, which makes transfer from country to town more difficult than transfer in the opposite direction. As regards further professional training, in practice there are greater facilities in towns.

*Ceylon.* Rural staff trained in training schools where instruction is given in Sinhalese or Tamil; urban teachers trained in schools where English is used. Except for that, conditions are similar. Transfer possible.

*Chile.* Training same length but in different establishments. Transfer possible to the towns after six years' service. Salaries on the same scale. Advantages for teachers in rural boarding schools and schools in isolated areas.

*Colombia.* Training takes place in different schools (six years for urban teachers, four for rural teachers). Five years' primary education is required for admission to the urban teacher training school; for admission to rural training schools, a shorter period may suffice.

*Cuba.* Different studies in the different training schools: four years in town, three in the country. Supplementary allowances for rural teachers. New rural schools have a house for the teacher.

*Czechoslovakia.* No difference except that teachers in schools with a reduced staff receive special allowances.

*Dominican Republic.* Training in different establishments, courses of different length. Transfer impossible unless the teacher takes additional training.

*Ecuador.* Training in different schools. Urban teachers must first spend two years in a rural school. Transfer of rural teachers to the town is rare; the reverse is possible.

*Egypt.* There are two types of training school, urban and rural. Syllabuses are the same except for agriculture and handwork. Transfer possible.

*Finland.* No difference. However, rural teachers generally receive accommodation at a reduced price. Transfer possible.

*France.* No difference except for a residential allowance. Transfer possible.

*German Federal Republic.* No difference in training and status. Accommodation facilities generally offered by country districts.

*Greece.* No difference. Transfer possible.

*Guatemala.* Two types of training school: urban and rural (the latter of recent creation). In addition there are auxiliary staff who are unqualified and less well paid. A rural teacher may not work in urban schools.

*Honduras.* Different training schools for urban and rural teachers. Salaries lower in the country. The best rural teachers may sometimes be transferred to the town.

*Hungary.* No difference as to training and appointment conditions. Financial advantages for rural teachers. Special measures promote their further training. Transfer possible.

*Iceland.* No difference, but the training of teachers in travelling rural schools is often incomplete.

*India. Indonesia.* No difference.

*Iran.* Teachers in urban schools and teachers in village schools are trained in different establishments in which, however, entrance requirements and length of study are identical. Same basis for salaries with advantages for teachers in schools where agriculture is practised.

*Iraq.* No difference. The salary of teachers in the most isolated areas, however, carries an additional increment of about 15 to 30%. Transfer possible.

*Ireland.* No difference. Transfer possible.

*Israel.* Special training schools for kibbutzin teachers. Transfer possible. Equal salaries.

*Italy.* No difference. Young teachers usually begin by working in rural schools. Transfer possible.

*Japan.* No difference in training and status. Teachers in isolated areas may receive an accelerated training of one or two years' duration. Special allowances for them and for teachers in other schools with a reduced staff.

*Korea.* Same training and conditions of appointment. Same basic salaries, but in the towns parent-teacher associations give teachers appreciable extra allowances. Transfers possible but administratively complicated.

*Laos.* Separate training, rapid in both cases (ordinary primary teachers and rural education teachers). Same salary basis. No transfer to town possible for rural education teachers.

*Lebanon.* No difference.

*Liberia.* No difference. Transfer possible.

*Luxembourg.* No difference except for family allowances which vary according to the category of the district. In addition allowances for special services are given to teachers in some towns.

*Malaya.* No difference.

*Morocco.* No difference. Correspondence courses for rural teachers enable them to make progress in their career.

*Netherlands.* No difference except that salaries vary slightly according to the borough.

*New Zealand.* No difference. Teachers who have not taught in the country for at least three years cannot receive certain increments. In addition, in some outlying areas accommodation is provided free. Transfer is encouraged.

*Norway.* No difference.

*Pakistan.* No difference in principle, but in practice the position of rural teachers is one of extreme poverty and considerable isolation.

*Panama.* No difference in law. However, higher qualifications are generally required of teachers wishing to work in certain towns.

*Paraguay.* Training takes place either in rural training schools or in urban training schools or even at summer courses. All teachers are classified in categories basically dependent on their training. Transfer from town to country and vice versa is possible.

*Peru.* There are urban and rural training schools. A rural teacher may be transferred to a town provided he has taught for at least five years in the country.

*Philippines.* No difference. In training schools emphasis is given, for all teachers, to the problem of improving the living conditions of rural populations through education.

*Poland.* Different categories of teachers according to qualifications (teachers for the first four years, for the last three, etc.). Different salaries. Differences also arise from seniority, responsibilities, etc. Free accommodation and a garden in the country. Transfer possible.

*Portugal.* No difference.

*Rumania.* No essential differences for teachers with a normal training. Since the 1948 reform, however, teachers without this training have been employed, especially in rural areas. Special allowances for teachers in mountain districts, etc., and for teachers in schools with a reduced staff. Transfer possible.

*Salvador.* Rural teachers are trained in rural training schools which they enter after completing their primary education, whereas urban teachers are trained in urban training schools which they may enter only after completing the *plan básico*.

*Spain.* No marked difference.

*Sweden.* No difference. Transfer possible.

*Switzerland.* No difference. In some areas, however, additional allowances are granted to teachers with multi-grade classes. In addition, residence allowances in towns. Transfer possible.

*Syria.* Training for rural teachers takes only three years. Transfers from town to country and vice versa are not possible.

*Thailand. Tunisia.* No difference.

*Turkey.* Two types of training school, but they train both rural and urban teachers. All have to complete an initial three-year probationary period in the country. However, training schools of type B are specially for candidates from the country and are set up in rural surroundings. Rural teachers generally receive free accommodation. Transfer possible.

*Ukraine.* Same training, same opportunities for promotion. Rural teachers' salaries slightly lower, but they receive free accommodation, heating and light, have the use of a garden and enjoy certain tax privileges. Transfer possible.

*Union of Burma. Union of South Africa.* No difference.

*USSR.* No difference as regards training, further training and conditions of appointment. Rural teachers are paid slightly less but have advantages as regards accommodation, garden and taxes. Special salary allowances and other advantages for those in the extreme north and distant regions. Transfer possible.

*United Kingdom.* England and Wales: No difference, but opportunities of taking special additional courses on rural problems. Northern Ireland: No difference. Scotland: No difference except that teachers in certain islands and outlying districts receive special allowances.

*United States.* Same basic conditions of training and work, with some exceptions. Average salary higher in town. Transfer possible.

*Uruguay.* Transfer possible for rural teachers after a minimum of two years' service in the country.

*Vietnam.* No difference. Transfer possible.

*Yugoslavia.* No difference except that rural teachers receive free accommodation and heating.

## SOCIAL ASSISTANCE

The replies indicate many varied forms of mutual aid the aim of which is to promote the smooth integration of country children in the educational system. Some countries stress in particular their efforts to set up more schools in rural areas, to supplement primary education by the provision of easily accessible secondary establishments and where necessary to improve pupil transport and sometimes boarding facilities.

Others mention that special scholarships are available for pupils from country districts.

Lastly, some reports furnish interesting information on campaigns for improving children's health in rural zones by means of more hygienic conditions and better nutrition. One country records in particular that produce from the school garden in which rural pupils learn the elements of agriculture can be most useful in this direction.

The following summary reproduces the main points of information received on the particular forms of social assistance provided for pupils in rural areas.

*Albania.* Scholarships specially for rural pupils to enable children from outlying areas to attend the seven-year and secondary school.

*Australia.* Transport facilities. Reasonable boarding fees.

*Brazil.* In the state of Rio de Janeiro, twelve rural social centres have been set up to work, in collaboration with the schools, for the improvement of the people's living conditions.

*Byelorussia.* Assistance for needy country children.

*Cambodia.* Scholarships for country children capable of continuing their education in towns.

*Cuba.* Social and sanitation work is organized for children and the local community with the help of the school.

*Dominican Republic.* Canteens in the poorest country schools.

*Ecuador.* Canteens, clothing and medical services, distribution of milk in rural schools.

*Finland.* Same in town and country as regards school meals, etc. Stress on the organization of transport for post-primary education in rural areas. For primary education a school every 5 Km. in principle.

*France.* Free pupil transport, free canteens, etc.

*Greece.* Social assistance is more extensive in the country than in the town: free breakfasts, clothing and medical services.

*Guatemala.* Aid for nutrition from Unicef and parents' associations in 300 *núcleos escolares*.

*Honduras.* School meals particularly in the country.

*Iraq.* Same basic provisions, but greater efforts in rural areas (meals, clothing, grants) because of the particularly low standard of living there.

*Italy.* Numerous scholarships, especially for children from rural areas where there are no secondary schools.

*Laos.* Canteens in the special rural schools in outlying areas.

*Liberia.* Books and meals provided by tribal authorities in inland territory.

*Malaya.* School hostels in towns for pupils from the country.

*Morocco.* School canteens in rural schools partly supplied with produce from school gardens.

*New Zealand.* District high schools: free transport for pupils living more than 2-3 miles from school. Scholarships for those who have to go to boarding schools. Scholarships for country children taking certain technical and pre-university courses.

*Norway.* Rural schools receive proportionately higher state subsidies than town schools for medical aid and psychological services.

*Panama.* School canteens in most rural schools. Sometimes clothing services.

*Philippines.* Midday meals at cost price for pupils from some rural areas who cannot get home.

*Poland.* Stress on increasing the number of schools and improving transport facilities.

*Rumania.* Establishment of schools with four classes even in hamlets, scholarships to enable children from isolated areas to continue their education in seven-year schools situated in more thickly populated localities.

*Switzerland.* Transport facilities when circumstances require.

*Syria.* No special social assistance except for poor children; this is provided from funds collected by the pupils.

*Ukraine.* Assistance given by industry, collective farms, etc.

*Union of Burma.* A more generous distribution of scholarships in rural areas.

*USSR.* Intensive campaign to supply school equipment. Seven-year schools serve a number of nearby localities within a radius of 3 Km. Primary schools exist in all these localities. For those living at a distance, daily transport or boarding facilities. Secondary schools in the most important centres. Assistance for poor pupils.

*Vietnam.* In the High Plateaux area, central schools with boarding facilities; elsewhere, canteens.

### ONE-TEACHER SCHOOLS

The one-teacher school system is usual in rural zones. Eight countries out of ten state that it is very widely used. In Sweden 30% of the total number of pupils attend one-teacher schools. In the United States, about 40 years ago three quarters of the schools were one-teacher schools, and even now one third is still of this kind. In the USSR about 40% of rural schools are one-teacher schools; in Ecuador 77%; in Norway 53%. Many more examples could be given.

Whereas, however, in very many countries pupils may follow a complete primary course (6, 7 and even 8 years) in a one-teacher school, often under excellent conditions, the same result has not been achieved in others, where the school with one teacher or a reduced staff provides only two or three years' study.

An analysis of the factors determining this difference is extremely important for the solution of the problem of providing education for rural populations. Historically, indeed, the complete one-teacher school was (and to a great extent still is) the means of integrating the countryside into the national educational system, but in its incomplete form it may lead, on the contrary, to a permanent cultural rift between rural areas and the rest of the country.

The following table summarizes the replies received on the subject of schools in rural areas with one teacher or with a reduced staff.

*Afghanistan.* One-teacher schools : 58%.

*Albania.* One-teacher or reduced-staff school are numerous at primary level.

*Australia.* One-teacher or reduced-staff schools generally found in rural areas.

*Austria.* There are one-teacher schools.

*Belgium.* One-teacher schools in small villages so that each village may have its own school.

*Brazil.* The rural school is generally a one-teacher school.

*Bulgaria.* One-teacher or reduced-staff schools in isolated areas.

*Byelorussia.* One-teacher schools in all small villages (less than 20 pupils).

*Cambodia.* One-teacher schools sometimes found in the country but they are few.

*Canada.* There are still 16,000 one-teacher schools; this system was general throughout the country in the last century.

*Ceylon.* Opportunities for pupils from one-teacher or small-staff schools to go, if they wish, sometimes with the help of a scholarship, to neighbouring junior and senior schools which serve several primary schools, or to secondary schools.

*Chile.* In general, one-teacher schools in rural areas.

*Colombia.* The one-teacher school is the usual system in rural areas.

*Cuba.* Eight rural schools out of ten are one-teacher schools, the rest almost all have two teachers.

*Czechoslovakia.* One-teacher schools in small districts.

*Dominican Republic.* One-teacher schools in the smallest villages, covering three years of study.

*Ecuador.* One-teacher rural schools : 77.4%; schools with from 2 to 4 teachers : 22.5%.

*Egypt.* No one-teacher schools owing to the dense population of Egyptian villages.

*Finland.* At present about 1,000 one-teacher schools. This figure is decreasing.

*France.* A great many one-teacher schools in rural areas (more than 24,000 not counting hamlet schools).

*German Federal Republic.* Rural one-teacher schools : 27%. Rural schools with two teachers : 47%.

*Greece.* Most country schools are one-teacher schools. In 1955-1956, out of 8,144 schools (in villages or small towns), 4,300 were one-teacher schools.

*Guatemala.* A large number of one-teacher schools (they provide only two or three years' study).

*Honduras.* One-teacher schools in the country almost everywhere.

*Hungary.* One-teacher or small-staff schools in small rural villages (half the schools, with about a tenth of the pupils).

*Iceland.* Almost all rural schools are one-teacher schools.

*India.* One-teacher schools make up about 45% of the total.

*Indonesia.* No one-teacher schools. The smallest have three teachers and their course is the same as in big schools.

*Iran.* One-teacher schools especially in small villages.

*Iraq.* One-teacher schools sometimes found in rural areas.

*Ireland.* Out of 4,871 primary schools, 2,686 have two teachers and 781 have one teacher.

*Italy.* There are 12,000 one-teacher schools (about a third of the total number of schools) and 8,000 with two teachers. Global and activity methods make the work of teachers in these schools easier.

*Japan.* Hardly 3% of the pupils go to schools with one or two classes. These schools are usually rural.

*Korea.* About 500 schools with one or two teachers in outlying areas (a very small proportion if reference is made to the International Yearbook of Education which quotes a total of 40,000 teachers).

*Laos.* One-teacher schools generally in villages.

*Lebanon.* One-teacher and small-staff schools are frequent.

*Liberia.* One-teacher schools common in rural areas. The reorganization programme limits instruction in this type of school to the first four years.

*Luxembourg.* About a quarter of the number of schools (usually rural schools) have only one teacher.

*Malaya.* No one-teacher schools

*Morocco.* One-teacher schools in some places.

*Netherlands.* One-teacher school system in schools with less than 31 pupils.

*New Zealand.* More than half the number of primary schools have one or two teachers.

*Norway.* The one-teacher school system is usual in the country (in 1953, 53% of rural schools were of this type).

*Pakistan.* One-teacher schools unknown in some provinces, very common in others.

*Panama.* Only 17% of the number of schools have two or more teachers and provide the complete course.

*Paraguay.* No one-teacher schools. One teacher per class.

*Peru.* Two-year primary schools have one teacher, three-year schools have two teachers or more.

*Philippines.* The one-teacher school system is used.

*Poland.* One-teacher schools wherever there are less than 41 children, two-teacher schools for 41 to 70 children, etc.

*Rumania.* Generally one teacher per class, but a single teacher is found in schools having up to 30 pupils, two teachers from 31 to 60 pupils, three teachers from 61 to 80 pupils.

*Salvador.* Rural schools are one-teacher schools.

*Spain.* Generally speaking, one-teacher schools in the country.

*Sweden.* About 30% of the pupils attend one-teacher schools. These schools are found particularly in rural areas.

*Switzerland.* One-teacher schools wherever this is feasible.

*Tunisia.* Out of 850 public schools about 6% have one class and 18% two classes.

*Turkey.* One teacher in all schools with less than 60 pupils.

*Ukraine.* One teacher or small-staff schools wherever the number of pupils is limited, for the first four classes.

*Union of Burma.* About 10% are one-teacher schools.

*Union of South Africa.* One-teacher schools in thinly populated areas.

*USSR.* About 40% of rural primary schools are one-teacher schools, the others mostly having two teachers.

*United Kingdom.* England and Wales : Small schools in a certain number of outlying areas. Northern Ireland : In 1956, about 55% of the primary schools had one or two teachers (schools in thinly populated areas). Scotland : One-teacher schools where there are few pupils.

*United States.* In 1917-1918 one-teacher schools made up about three quarters of the total and still represent a third today.

*Uruguay.* Two teachers from 35 pupils upwards.

*Vietnam.* One-teacher or small-staff schools only in a small number of outlying villages.

*Yugoslavia.* There is one teacher in four-year rural schools.



### CONCENTRATION OF PUPILS IN CENTRAL SCHOOLS, BOARDING SCHOOLS, PUPIL TRANSPORT

The tendency to group pupils from several rural districts in central schools (after the first years of primary education or even from the beginning of the primary stage for those living in completely cut-off areas) may be seen, though to a varying extent, in more than two thirds of the countries which answered the inquiry. These central schools usually cover the whole primary stage and some or all of the secondary level classes.

In most cases pupils use daily transport services to get to school, provided either free or at a reduced cost. In about one country in ten both this and the boarding school system are used; in one country in twenty the boarding school is the more usual method; this is particularly the case in countries where transport is still very difficult.

Indeed, geographical conditions largely determine the extent of pupil concentration and the nature of the solutions adopted. One country whose position is particularly difficult owing to the harsh climate and sparse population states that pupils have been divided into two groups (seniors and juniors). Each group goes to school for a fortnight at a time and the rest of the time pupils work at home under the supervision of their parents. In this way they are away from home for only part of the school year, and only for short periods.

The part played by the *núcleos escolares* should also be mentioned. In some Latin American countries these serve as central schools and at the same time encourage the activities of their satellite primary schools and contribute to the basic education of the community in which they are situated.

The following summary gives the information received on the points dealt with in this section.

*Afghanistan.* In the new five-year plan measures are being taken for the opening of boarding schools to house children from several rural areas.

*Albania.* No concentration at primary level because of geographical difficulties. The tendency is, on the contrary, to open schools even where the number of pupils is very small.

*Australia.* At present, in some federated states, there is a tendency to close one-teacher schools and group pupils in central schools with a system of transport. These schools provide complete primary education and from two to four years of post-primary education.

*Austria.* The transport system is preferred to the boarding school. The existence of upper rural schools in central positions makes the solution of the problem easier.

*Belgium.* In practice pupils are concentrated in the primary schools which prepare for secondary education.

*Bulgaria.* Primary boarding schools for children living more than 3 Km. from a primary school. Free transport for the others. The extension of the primary and secondary boarding school system even to children from places nearer the central schools is contemplated.

*Byelorussia.* A close network of schools avoids the necessity for primary boarding schools. Pupils are transported in bad weather.

*Cambodia.* General tendency to concentration in central schools. Boarding schools had been established but they are being closed (too expensive, besides which there are now easily accessible schools almost everywhere).

*Canada.* School districts, which were formerly restricted to one school, are now being considerably extended; this results in better organization, particularly in the country. Tendency to concentrate pupils in rural central schools with transport by bus. In some cases dormitories for secondary school pupils living at a distance from lines of communication.

*Ceylon.* There are 54 central schools for scholarship holders, who receive board and lodging (about 5,000 scholarships).

*Chile.* Tendency to convert four-year rural schools into complete schools or to concentrate pupils in central schools. Farm-schools have boarding facilities.

*Colombia.* No central schools.

*Cuba.* A few rural central schools.

*Czechoslovakia.* Pupils from schools providing only five years' study are transported to central schools or go to boarding schools from the sixth year onwards. Tendency to extend this system in one or other of these two ways according to the circumstances.

*Dominican Republic.* Tendency to concentrate pupils in central schools. No special transport system.

*Ecuador.* Demonstration centres to which are attached central teacher training schools encourage the activities of satellite schools.

*Egypt.* No central schools.

*Finland.* Tendency to concentration for continuation courses and secondary schools, with daily transport of pupils and, when it cannot be avoided, boarding schools.

*France.* The education reform scheme is planning intermediate central schools (11 to 13 years) for ex-pupils of a group of elementary satellite schools. Daily transport system or boarding schools according to the circumstances.

*German Federal Republic.* Various experiments. Development of daily transport is preferred to boarding schools.

*Greece. Guatemala. Honduras.* No concentration.

*Hungary.* Tendency to close one-teacher or small-staff schools in favour of central schools. No boarding schools at general education level. Daily transport if necessary.

*Iceland.* Climatic conditions and distances are such that even daily transport of pupils cannot always be used. An effort is being made to build boarding schools. In this work villages often combine. In boarding schools pupils are divided into two groups (seniors and juniors). The groups go to school alternately for a fortnight at a time. The rest of the time pupils work at home under the supervision of their parents.

*Indonesia. Iran.* No tendency to concentration.

*Iraq.* Tendency to concentrate pupils from several rural districts in central schools.

*Ireland.* No concentration. Pupils in isolated areas are transported daily to school by appropriate means.

*Israel.* Tendency to set up primary central schools serving several zones. Children go there for the whole day, but there are no boarding schools.

*Italy.* Tendency to concentration particularly from the second primary stage onwards.

*Japan.* In some areas tendency to concentrate several schools in a centre. Sometimes boarding schools, but generally daily transport of pupils.

*Laos.* No concentration; on the contrary, decentralization results from difficulties of communication.

*Lebanon.* A Ministry of National Education scheme is planning to provide central educational establishments which would take pupils from nearby villages. The system of daily pupil transport is contemplated.

*Liberia.* A central school taking children from nearby areas was successfully introduced and others have been set up.

*Luxembourg.* In some communes (0.8% of the total number) schools were closed because they had too few pupils. In this case the State and the commune arrange for the transport of the pupils to a neighbouring school.

*Morocco.* In many areas, concentration of pupils towards the end of their schooling in central schools with boarding facilities.

*New Zealand.* In some areas concentration of several small schools in a central school. In this case pupils are transported free.

*Norway.* There is a tendency to concentrate pupils of several small rural localities in central schools. It is endeavoured to avoid using boarding schools by introducing means of transport. However, distances compel the use of boarding schools in some cases, especially in the north.

*Pakistan.* No concentration because of economic and geographical difficulties, and also tribal rivalries.

*Panama. Paraguay.* No concentration.

*Peru.* Attempts to establish a school in each place where there are more than 30 children. *Núcleos escolares* consist of a central school and satellite schools and, in some cases, there is transport of pupils by bus.

*Philippines.* No concentration.

*Poland.* In 1956-1957 about 1,600 pupils in the fifth, sixth and seventh primary classes were in boarding schools, the rest in seven-year schools either in the district or accessible by means of daily transport (grants for transport).

*Rumania.* Boarding schools are attached to seven-year schools. The boarding school system is preferred to transport because of bad weather difficulties.

*Salvador. Spain.* No tendency to concentration.

*Sweden.* For several decades the tendency has been to reduce the number of one-teacher schools. Schools which are too small are closed and pupils are transported daily to central schools. The boarding school system is avoided but for exceptional and inevitable cases.

*Switzerland.* Concentration in sparsely populated areas, with daily transport of pupils as a rule.

*Syria.* Concentration very rare.

*Tunisia.* To improve the efficiency of small-staff schools it is planned to make them satellites of central schools with boarding facilities, which would take pupils in the last two primary classes.

*Turkey.* There is a tendency to concentrate pupils from small places in regional schools. The boarding school system is preferred to pupil transport as the latter presents serious difficulties.

*Union of South Africa.* Tendency to centralization, with pupil transport, or boarding schools when distances are too great.

*USSR.* Transport or boarding schools according to the circumstances. Organized introduction of seven-year and secondary schools, to serve a group of neighbouring localities.

*United Kingdom.* England and Wales: Tendency to introduce central secondary schools everywhere with daily transport of pupils; this is easy as distances are very short and means of transport plentiful. Scotland: No concentration at primary level, but in some cases at secondary level (with usually a transport system, and boarding schools or hostels in some cases for pupils from certain islands, etc.).

*United States.* Marked tendency to concentration during the last decades. Few boarding schools (in special cases only) but extensive system of pupil transport by bus.

*Uruguay.* Experiments are being made in the concentration of pupils from undeveloped areas in central schools.

*Vietnam.* Concentration in central schools with boarding facilities in mountain areas.

*Yugoslavia.* Certain federated republics have set up eight-year central schools which take children from neighbouring villages after completion of the first four primary years.

#### RADIO AND CORRESPONDENCE TEACHING FOR CHILDREN IN ISOLATED AREAS

In some countries radio and correspondence teaching are used systematically to provide instruction out of school for children in particularly isolated areas, as well as for handicapped children and those whose parents are constantly moving about. Parents are responsible for the supervision of their children's work, which obviously implies a very high cultural level in the bulk of the population. Travelling teachers visit homes. This system is particularly developed in Australia for example where pupils even have two-way radio sets. It also occurs that correspondence teaching is used for pupils at secondary level in regions where the area accessible to them contains only primary schools. Their work is in that case supervised by the primary teacher, but organized in assignments sent to them by post. A parallel system is sometimes also used for teaching technical and specialized subjects in classes for older children. One may easily imagine the assistance that television will provide in this field.

The following summary gives the information on these methods supplied by countries where they are used or where their use is planned for the near future.

*Australia.* Extensive use of radio and correspondence teaching in particularly isolated regions, and even travelling teachers, at primary and secondary level (including vocational and technical instruction). Methodical organization. Collaboration of parents. Collaboration of primary teachers for secondary education by correspondence and wireless. Supervision in some districts by travelling specialists. More general use of air transport contemplated. Special radio system enabling pupil and teacher to converse.

*Canada.* Correspondence teaching for children from isolated areas, particularly for secondary level pupils working in a primary school.

*Colombia.* Children in isolated areas listen to adult education radio programmes.

*Cuba.* School broadcasting used particularly for rural education and teaching in isolated areas since 1937.

*India.* Wireless programmes are used in a very small number of districts, and only recently.

*Laos.* Teaching by radio is being studied, but not by correspondence because of difficulties of communication.

*New Zealand.* Wireless programmes for all schools and a special correspondence education service for pupils who cannot attend school because of distance or of physical handicaps. Visiting teachers supervise their studies.

*Sweden.* School broadcasting and correspondence teaching are used in certain cases to compensate for the lack of specialized teachers in some subjects in the primary curriculum, particularly English.

*United States.* Correspondence teaching particularly to supplement the course in small secondary schools and for primary and secondary pupils who are unable to attend school (handicapped, sparsely populated areas, etc.). School broadcasting and television are used for informal illustration of regular teaching.

# AFGHANISTAN

*From the reply sent by the Ministry of Education*

## ADMINISTRATION

The principal functions of the Department of Primary Education are the following : (a) To organize and administer general, primary and compulsory education throughout the country. (b) To provide educational facilities such as textbooks, teaching equipment and teachers, etc. to the primary school. (c) To organize and administer village schools and adult literacy courses.

The rural population in the country is estimated at 95 %. To cater for the educational needs of this population, the Ministry of Education has appointed Directors of Education in the provinces, who are responsible for the administration and supervision of primary education in rural zones. The Ministry of Education has also created a Directorate of Fundamental Education to supervise and manage all educational activities in the rural development project units in consultation with the Department of Primary Education.

## ORGANIZATION

Generally, there are no major differences between schools in urban areas and schools in rural areas.

In areas where the Ministry of Education has provided regular primary schools, about 90 % of the children of school age seek admission each year. In other areas, where six-grade schools have not been established due to lack of materials and buildings, or on account of the shortage of trained teachers, the Ministry has opened village schools of three-year duration which represent 58 % of the total number of primary schools.

In respect of post-primary education the Ministry, within its annual financial allocations, provides free education in technical, vocational and general fields up to university standard. In addition, students are provided with free board and lodging and some pocket money.

## CURRICULA, SYLLABUSES, METHODS

There is no difference in the curricula of urban and rural schools with regard to the number and nomenclature of the subjects taught, except that in rural zones emphasis is placed on the teaching of local crafts, agriculture and gardening.

The number of hours allotted to each subject is, likewise, the same both in country and town schools except for the additional subjects mentioned above.

The methods employed in teaching subject matter in rural schools are different from those generally used in urban schools. The methods in

rural areas are designed to meet the requirements in rural areas. More emphasis is placed on using the hands and on observation of the environment than on classroom instruction.

There are no special textbooks for rural areas except for the three-year village schools. These textbooks, in general, deal with religion, history, geography, health and hygiene, agriculture and gardening and local crafts in country areas.

#### TEACHING STAFF

With regard to the training of teachers for primary schools, the government has established teacher training schools in Kabul and in the provinces. The graduates from these schools work both in rural and urban areas.

The pupils in this school are recruited from both rural and urban areas after completion of the sixth grade. They spend six years there during which period they are trained as teachers for primary schools.

In the 11th and 12th grades pupils are familiarized with rural conditions. They spend 11 weeks at the fundamental education organizers' centre in the demonstration, research, evaluation and training project (rural development). During this period, the pupils are required to study problems in rural schools and organize community activities in the villages adjoining the training centre. Thus, during their stay of six years at the teacher training school, the pupils are prepared as primary school teachers with emphasis on rural education through special courses.

On completion of their education at the teacher training school, the graduates are offered appointments by the Ministry. Generally, students from rural areas are posted to a school in the province of their residence.

There is no difference in the salaries offered to teachers in urban and rural schools. However, in rural development project unit areas, the teachers who undertake fundamental education programmes are paid extra allowances.

Teachers may be transferred from rural to urban areas and vice versa after completion of two years' teaching in the same area.

#### ACTION AIMED AT PROVIDING EQUAL EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES

*Social assistance:* No provision has been made in general for any social assistance for children in rural areas. However, in the rural development project units children are being provided with soap and re-constituted milk by Unicef.

*One-teacher schools:* The proportion of one-teacher schools in the country is about 58%.

*Concentration:* Under the new five-year plan, arrangements have been made for opening central schools where boarding facilities will be provided for children from several rural districts.

*Audio-visual material:* The audio-visual department arranges to show educational films in the rural schools. The film units are dispatched from Kabul to the different provinces according to a schedule drawn up by the Ministry.

# ALBANIA

*From the reply sent by the Ministry of Education and Culture*

## INTRODUCTION

In Albania the general education system covers primary schools, seven-year schools and high schools. Primary schools provide four years instruction; seven-year schools comprise the four years of primary education and three further years (classes V, VI and VII) which, as regards the content and organization of courses, form the lower stage of secondary education. The high schools provide four years' instruction following on from the seven-year school courses.

In 1956-1957, eleven-year schools were set up in towns. They group in one unit the four primary years, the three additional years of the seven-year course and the four high school years, giving an eleven-year course from class 1 to class XI.

Primary education is compulsory throughout the country and this compulsory education is fully implemented.

Seven-year education is compulsory in urban areas as well as in many rural zones; it is gradually spreading to other villages.

Almost 50% of the children in rural areas completing the primary course continue their studies in the fifth year of the seven-year school.

The law makes no distinction, in the general education system, between rural and urban schools. Administration, courses and textbooks are therefore the same. However, as the number of children in rural primary schools is often not very large, the one-teacher or small-staff system is applied whenever necessary. In small, remote localities, schools are opened even when the number of school age children is as low as 15.

The percentage of pupils in rural schools as compared with the total number of enrolments for the 1956-1957 school year was as follows: first year of study, 74.5%; second year, 75.4%; third year 74.4%; fourth year 74.4%; fifth year, 53.3%; sixth year, 51.4%; seventh year, 45%.

As seven-year schooling spreads in rural areas, the percentage for the Vth, VIth and VIIth classes will approach that for the Ist, IInd, IIIrd and IVth primary years.

## ADMINISTRATION

There is no special administrative body for educational organization in rural areas.

## ORGANIZATION

There is no difference between rural and urban schools as regards educational aims, time-tables and compulsory school age. In mountain areas, where winter makes travel difficult, the school year begins on 1st March and ends on 15th November.

The average number of children per teacher is 29 in primary and seven-year schools in rural areas.

There are one-teacher primary schools with 15 pupils in all.

### CURRICULA, SYLLABUSES, METHODS

As stated above, there is no difference in the curriculum, syllabus and methods. Only handwork and practical work syllabuses in rural primary and seven-year schools differ to a certain extent from those in town schools, since in rural schools more time is given to practical agriculture.

### TEACHING STAFF

Teacher training schools are of the same kind everywhere and make no distinction in the training of future teachers for rural or urban areas. The length of the course and the entrance requirements are the same for all pupils.

There is no difference either between the conditions of appointment for rural and urban teachers. For rural schools preference is given to local candidates living in the village concerned.

There is a difference between rural and urban schools as regard salaries. Given equal qualifications and years of service, the rural teacher receives a monthly additional allowance, in comparison with the town teacher, of about 5% of the standard salary rate. In areas where natural conditions are difficult, rural teachers receive an allowance of 15% of the standard rate in addition to the allowance already mentioned. Further, the people's council provides free accommodation and heating for rural teachers. Teachers in small-staff schools receive additional remuneration for overtime work.

Opportunities for transfer from country to town depend on the teacher's wishes and the available posts, taking into account first of all the applicant's health, family responsibilities and financial position.

### ACTION AIMED AT PROVIDING EQUAL EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES

To enable pupils from areas without seven-year schools or high schools to attend such establishments, the State has introduced a system of scholarships. These are awarded, under special regulations, on the basis of family income. Most of the total number of scholarships awarded annually by the State for secondary and vocational education are given to peasants' children. The quota of state scholarships awarded for seven-year schools is entirely reserved for the children of peasants and inhabitants of small towns where there are no schools of this type. Country orphans (like town orphans) are brought up in special children's homes run at government expense.

The State has also planned several measures to assist peasants' children who study in post-primary schools at their parents' expense.

The one-teacher or small-staff primary school is found in numerous villages and some small towns. This method is employed to achieve the full implementation of compulsory schooling, even to the extent of opening such schools, as already stated, where the number of school-age children



is as small as 15. It is never used in classes V, VI and VII of the seven-year schools, where subjects are taught by the various specialist teachers. This is due to the fact that so far these schools have been opened only in villages with a sufficiently large school population.

At present there is no tendency to concentrate primary pupils from different rural areas in central schools where each class would have its own teacher. This is due to geographical factors.

# AUSTRALIA

*From the reply sent by the Office of Education*<sup>1</sup>

## ADMINISTRATION

There is no special administrative body responsible for organizing rural education. Formerly the administration and supervision of rural education was carried out entirely by the central state office working through a team of primary, secondary and technical supervisors and inspectors. There has been a tendency towards decentralization in several of the Australian states in recent years.

In New South Wales area administration is now firmly established under six area directors. Two of these areas, Sydney (Western) and Newcastle, embrace many outer metropolitan (urban) schools but the remaining four areas cater almost exclusively for various types of rural school. However, there are both rural and urban schools in each of the areas. The area director is responsible for administrative problems within his area but the formulation of educational policy remains the prerogative of the Department of Education, Sydney.

A somewhat similar position prevails in Queensland where the state has been subdivided for educational purposes into five regions, each under a regional director. Here again, the central office retains responsibility for general policy matters. The remaining states retain a centralized administration, rural education being under the control of supervisors of primary, secondary and technical education.

There is no strict line of demarcation between rural and urban educational areas. The main criteria are demographic and geographical.

Although Australia has an area equal to that of the United States of America, its population in 1955 was less than ten million. Two-thirds of this population live in coastal cities and large towns while the remainder are scattered widely over thinly populated areas. The large area of Australia makes it impossible for schools to be erected within easy reach of every child of school age.

The geographical area in which a school exists determines, to some extent, the nature of the curriculum, particularly with regard to secondary education. Country secondary schools normally provide a two or three-year course in agriculture in addition to the academic or semi-technical curriculum available in urban schools, while agricultural high schools and colleges have a full secondary course in agriculture leading to the Leaving or Senior Certificate.

## ORGANIZATION

There are no enactments in state education laws which differentiate between aims assigned to education in urban and rural schools.

<sup>1</sup> This information applies to government schools only.

States do not differentiate between the years of compulsory schooling in urban and rural districts. Attendance at school is compulsory from the age of 6 years to 14, 15 or 16 years, depending on the state.

The only difference in the annual number of class hours as between rural and urban schools is that two states grant an extra week's annual holiday for schools in remote rural areas.

There is no difference in the number of class hours per day or in the percentage of enrolment.

The teacher-pupil ratio varies from state to state, but generally speaking the class load is greater in the city and large towns than in more remote country areas. The standard aimed at in general is 25 pupils per teacher in urban areas and 20 pupils per teacher in rural districts. However, in many city schools the ratio is considerably larger than this, in some cases being forty pupils, or over. Education departments are taking all possible measures to reduce this figure. Many small schools possibly have less than the minimum number of pupils recommended and most area and consolidated schools do not have a higher than normal pupil-teacher ratio.

All states provide, within the compulsory education system, further educational opportunities beyond the primary school level in rural districts. Schools of various types are provided and include high schools, junior high and central schools, area and consolidated schools, primary schools with secondary departments and agricultural high schools. Correspondence schools also provide secondary courses for pupils who reside in remote rural districts.

#### CURRICULA, SYLLABUSES, METHODS

In all states the basic primary school curriculum is the same for rural as for urban areas. A minor difference is that in rural areas more emphasis is placed on introducing pupils to the elementary principles of agriculture through nature study. In Victoria horticulture is taken by some older pupils at primary level. This involves a study of the agricultural products of the area and makes provision for the carrying out of projects.

At the secondary level in all states there is, to a varying degree, in rural areas, an attempt to develop agricultural education in relation to the life of the community. As mentioned before, this may be done by the provision of specific courses of study up to both junior and senior levels in high, junior high, area, consolidated and rural schools and in special agricultural high schools.

As an example, in New South Wales a post-primary course in agriculture is provided at twenty-four country high schools, fifteen country intermediate high schools, fourteen district rural schools and twenty-five central schools. This course leads to the intermediate certificate after three years. A five-year course is available at the three agricultural high schools and in most full country high schools. The Leaving Certificate is awarded for the successful completion of this course.

The general courses in country secondary schools provide for the teaching of subjects such as English, history, mathematics, geography or social studies. The syllabuses of these subjects are no different from those provided for urban schools.

Any differences that exist are differences in the facilities available for the successful completion of certain courses of study. Thus few country secondary schools would provide courses in Greek, German or economics, as it would not be practicable to provide teachers for the few students desirous of studying these subjects. Likewise it is not practicable to provide courses in agricultural science in metropolitan schools. Similar fields of study such as botany, physiology, chemistry, physics and general science are taught in metropolitan schools. Again, at junior standard, metropolitan students may take technical subjects such as woodwork, technical drawing or metalwork, while rural students may undertake farm mechanics and associated drawing, woodwork and metalwork.

Where similar subjects are undertaken there is no difference in the number of hours allocated to them in urban and rural schools.

The items appearing in the syllabus for each subject are identical.

There are no significant differences as regards the suggestions or directions concerning methods. In rural areas greater use is made of school gardens to stimulate a better appreciation of agricultural methods. Some schools have pine plantations which provide useful experience for the pupils and an additional source of income for the schools from the sale of timber.

Supplementary activities in rural areas are provided for by the establishment of Junior Farmers' Clubs. These clubs encourage activities such as pasture improvement, forest preservation, care of livestock, orchard maintenance, the growing of cereals and vegetables and promote a deeper understanding and appreciation of the country way of life.

The set textbooks for specific subjects are identical for urban and rural schools.

#### TEACHING STAFF

There are no differences in the types of establishment in which teachers are trained. In five of the Australian states, teachers for government schools are trained in teachers' colleges controlled and administered by the education departments. In Tasmania training is undertaken at the University of Tasmania. Basic courses are identical and all teachers must at some stage undertake country work. Specialized subject courses are undertaken by teachers of agriculture, usually at an agricultural college or university. Special courses are sometimes given for teachers who specify their desire to teach at one-teacher schools, but teachers taking the general primary school training course may be appointed to such a school.

Generally there are no differences as regards the length of studies in teacher training. However, in one state a short course of one year's duration (as distinct from the normal two-year course) is provided for teachers training for one-teacher schools. On completion, students are ranked as unclassified teachers and appointed to small rural schools. Certification is granted at a later date for satisfactory service and compliance with prescribed conditions. This example is, however, an exception rather than the rule.

All teachers are equally encouraged to improve their qualifications by taking university, technical or teachers' courses. Rural teachers

may take advantage of university correspondence courses which are available to most Australian teachers.

All students desiring to enter the various branches of the teaching profession must have similar basic qualifications for admission to the teacher training schools, normally the Leaving Certificate which is taken at the completion of the full secondary school course. This usually represents five years of secondary study and in general is at matriculation level.

*Appointment Procedure:* All teachers throughout Australia must undertake to serve anywhere within the state in which they are trained. Normally a teacher's first appointment is to a country school where classes are smaller and the new teacher can gain confidence and experience. Except in the case of teachers of agriculture no special qualifications are required in order to teach in rural schools.

*Salaries:* Identical salaries are paid to teachers doing equivalent work, but teachers in specified remote areas usually qualify for a cash district allowance which varies from district to district and from state to state.

*Transfer:* Unless a teacher makes representations to remain in country areas he or she is normally moved to a metropolitan school after a period of country service. It is usual for a teacher to be required to undertake a further period of country service if promotion is desired beyond a certain level. As indicated previously it is usual for all teachers to serve in country districts at some period of their career.

#### ACTION AIMED AT PROVIDING EQUAL EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES

Travelling concessions are extended to children attending both urban and rural schools. In metropolitan areas concessional fare rates normally apply only to travel by government bus, train or tram services. For pupils residing in country areas, if private conveyances are used beyond a specified distance, a travelling allowance is paid. Examples of these allowances are : New South Wales 3/9d per day per child, Victoria £10 per year, Western Australia 12/6 per week. School bus services are organized departmentally in all states except Queensland where bus services run by local organizations are subsidized. In Victoria 823 bus services convey approximately 34,800 pupils to school. Similar services operate in other states. Free or concessional week-end and vocational passes are also granted to children living away from home. •

Hostels are provided for country children for whom daily travel to and from school is impossible or inconvenient. Apart from the hostels attached to special schools and agricultural high schools, which are open to children irrespective of domicile, relatively few of these hostels are operated directly by state education departments. They are instead normally provided by voluntary organizations and subsidized by the government. Throughout Australia more than 1,800 secondary pupils are accommodated in 67 hostels. Hostel accommodation and board is not free but rates charged are very reasonable.

In Victoria, Western Australia, South Australia and the Northern Territory living-away-from-home allowances are paid if hostel accommodation is not available. In the other states such allowances are paid only to bursary or scholarship holders.

As previously indicated the system of one-teacher schools or schools with a limited number of teachers is common throughout rural districts in Australia. The teacher in charge of a one-teacher school may have all the primary grades and conceivably several secondary grade pupils in the one room and special techniques have been evolved to deal with this problem.

In recent years there has been an increasing tendency in some states to close small one-teacher schools in suitable localities and transport pupils to larger centres where additional accommodation is available. Such centres are known as area, rural, consolidated or central schools. Although certain disadvantages such as long distances to travel and relative lack of local interest can be advanced, the advantages of modern equipment, homogeneity and continuity of instruction, and provision for technical and scientific equipment and greater opportunity to mix with children of the same age group are considered to outweigh these disadvantages.

These schools provide primary instruction and from two to four years of post-primary instruction. The primary curriculum is the same as that adopted in city schools, but the application of the post-primary curriculum is biased towards practical activities and training in subjects bearing on the main industries of the locality.

Extensive use is made of correspondence tuition and broadcasting in rural areas because of the manner in which the population is distributed. Correspondence schools bring facilities for education to children living in isolated areas and to those whose parents follow itinerant occupations.

Each state provides correspondence courses at the primary, secondary and technical levels. Primary courses cover the full range of the primary curriculum. The range of secondary courses differs from state to state. Subjects normally provided include English, French, Latin, history, geography, social studies, mathematics and commercial subjects.

Technical correspondence schools provide an extensive range of subjects, those pertaining particularly to rural education being animal husbandry, farm mechanics and agriculture.

To give the broader educational background developed by school attendance, supplementary leaflets on current affairs are forwarded regularly.

No fees are charged for primary correspondence education. Postage is paid both ways by the school and in some states pencils, paper and other stationery are supplied free of charge, and reading and textbooks may be either given or loaned. In some states fees are charged for secondary tuition but stationery and other requisites may be supplied free. All technical correspondence schools charge fees and students pay return postage and provide their own stationery and equipment.

Correspondence schools are staffed by trained teachers with wide classroom experience. The correction of work by the teacher is carried out in considerable detail and is accompanied by appropriate comment and advice. If a pupil's work is not returned to the school and no explanation is received, enquiries are instituted. Home supervision is usually provided by the child's mother who has to set aside time from her normal duties to give the necessary advice, assistance, supervision and correction. To assist the home supervisor all state education departments

issue instructions and suggestions when correspondence tuition is commenced.

Promotion occurs, in general, at the completion of the work for a particular grade. The usual system of promotion at the beginning of a school year does not apply. At secondary level promotion may be made in one subject and not in another. Children who complete a primary course in a one-teacher school and cannot attend a secondary school sometimes do secondary correspondence courses under the supervision of the primary teacher. In this way the pupil is able to participate in general school life and, while working independently, to benefit from the experience of a trained teacher.

In Western Australia a scheme of itinerant teachers was introduced in 1946, following the pattern of a similar scheme introduced in Queensland in 1901, but since abandoned. Three itinerant teachers have been appointed each year to visit homes and stations in the North-West and West Kimberley districts where correspondence schoolchildren live. Usually two four-day visits are made to each homestead. Aided by modern transport and equipment such as film projectors and tape recorders the scheme has proved highly satisfactory and will be further expanded. In the future, because of the availability of air runways on properties, teachers may travel by light aircraft thus enabling more frequent visits to be undertaken.

The Australian Broadcasting Commission transmits a variety of broadcasts for school children covering nation-wide programmes such as "Health and Hygiene" and "The World We Live In", and state-wide programmes designed to meet the curricular needs of a particular state.

Radio broadcasts may involve the immediate activity of the pupils or suggest activities that can be undertaken by the pupil on completion of the session. Booklets are issued giving illustrations of the broadcasts and outlining preparatory and supplementary work. Radio broadcasts cater especially for the less formal aspects of education which do not lend themselves to treatment by assignments through the mail.

In addition each state provides a programme specially prepared and given by teachers from the correspondence schools for correspondence pupils. The sessions are designed to provide material supplementary to correspondence lessons, to give advice to home supervisors and to strengthen the relationship between teachers, pupils and supervisors.

From Alice Springs in Central Australia is operated the "School of the Air", a scheme commenced in 1950 using the two-way pedal radio system of the Flying Doctor Service which enables the teacher and his pupils to engage in personal question and answer periods. Similar schemes are being utilized in New South Wales and South Australia. Under the South Australian scheme, each day three school sessions are conducted and children in each grade from I to VII have at least one lesson explained to them.

#### • MISCELLANEOUS

To supplement study and provide a wider cultural background the public libraries of Australia have brought library services to the rural child by providing country lending services and through the "box"

system of group lending. Some of the larger country schools also make books available to correspondence students from their own libraries. The correspondence schools in some states have their own children's library service.

Each correspondence school has extra-curricular activities comparable with those of an ordinary school. Participation in the Junior Red Cross, bird and tree lovers' clubs, lone scouts and lone guides organizations is a valuable part of the educational process. Students are also encouraged to participate in the correspondence Sunday school movement.

Many correspondence schools also publish their own magazine in which are found short paragraphs, verses, sketches, photographs and personal news from past and present students.

The following tables should prove of interest :

TABLE I

*Summary of Hostel Accommodation for Secondary Pupils*

State or Territory	Government Hostels		Private Hostels		Total	
	No. of Hostels	No. of Children	No. of Hostels	No. of Children	No. of Hostels	No. of Children
New South Wales . . . . .	3	150	21	550	24	700
Victoria . . . . .	—	—	5	190	5	190
Queensland . . . . .	—	—	17	425	17	425
South Australia . . . . .	—	—	2	40	2	40
Western Australia . . . . .	—	—	8	246	8	246
Tasmania . . . . .	5	200	1	43	6	243
Australian Capital Territory . . . . .	—	—	—	—	—	—
Northern Territory . . . . .	—	—	5	20	5	20
Total . . . . .	8	350*	59	1,514*	67	1,864

\* No reliable figures are held on the number of children. Some of these hostels also cater for primary children. Hence the number of pupils shown in this column is small in some cases.

TABLE II

*Numbers of Secondary Pupils Taught by Correspondence, 1955*

State	Secondary Correspondence Pupils	All Secondary Pupils	%
New South Wales . . . . .	1,493	109,034	1.4%
Victoria . . . . .	931*	74,756	1.2%
Queensland . . . . .	715	11,369	6.3%
South Australia . . . . .	386	18,552	2.1%
Western Australia . . . . .	683	16,329	4.2%
Tasmania . . . . .	14	12,043	0.1%
Total . . . . .	4,222	242,083	1.8%

\* Includes approximately 800 pupils taking secondary correspondence courses at primary schools (one-teacher).

Research was undertaken by the University of Western Australia in 1955 on the comparative results of country and metropolitan candidates in the subject of English in the 1954 Leaving Certificate examination. In that year the English examination consisted of three papers. Paper 1



was set on the required books, Paper 2 was an objective English comprehension test prepared by the Australian Council for Educational Research, and Paper 3 was a two-hour paper requiring the writing of a single essay on a set subject. The statistics relating to these three papers are shown in Table III below :

TABLE III

Paper	Group	Number of Candidates	Mean Score	Standard Deviation	Standard Error of Mean
1) Set Books	Town	950	55.81	10.71	.347
	Country	194	56.11	9.64	.692
	Total	1,144	55.86	10.54	.312
2) Objective Test	Town	950	48.65	10.69	.347
	Country	194	48.26	10.08	.724
	Total	1,144	48.55	10.59	.313
3) Essay	Town	950	57.08	10.60	.344
	Country	194	56.77	9.69	.696
	Total	1,144	57.02	10.45	.309

The results as shown indicate that during 1954 for the subject in question there was no significant difference between the mean scores of country and metropolitan candidates.

# AUSTRIA

*From the reply sent by the Federal Ministry of Education*

## ADMINISTRATION

Since 1946 the Federal Ministry of Education has included an office specializing in rural education. It is placed in charge of a special inspector and is attached to the section of compulsory education and teacher training.

In each province there are at present inspectors entirely or partially exempted from their other duties in order to devote their attention to rural schools. Conferences held regularly and colloquiums on rural education organized every two or three years are devoted to the main problems of the adaptation of rural schools to changes in the social and economic order affecting rural areas. In the publications given under the heading "Miscellaneous" will be found supplementary information, especially regarding the development of experimental rural schools.

## ORGANIZATION

There is no difference between rural and urban schools as regards the aim assigned to education by legal enactments. The number of years of compulsory schooling and the ages at which it begins and ends, as well as the number of weekly lessons, are the same. The percentage of enrolments everywhere coincides with the total number of children of school age.

The number of pupils per teacher and per class in rural schools has been decreased from an average of 50 in 1946 to 30. The average is the same in urban primary schools.

There are rural continuation schools and secondary agricultural schools under the Federal Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry and the provincial authorities. See also, under "Action Aimed at Providing Equal Educational Facilities", reference to upper primary schools.

## CURRICULA, SYLLABUSES, METHODS

The number and the nomenclature of the subjects taught, as well as the number of hours allotted to teaching do not differ in rural and urban schools.

However, special methods are applied for teaching in small rural schools where pupils belonging to different years are taught together. Moreover, special instructions are issued regarding the adaptation of rural teaching to local conditions as well as for the practical organization of experimental schools in rural areas.

## TEACHING STAFF

The training and length of courses for teachers in rural and urban areas are identical: five years following compulsory school attendance (i.e. after the age of 14). A practical course in rural teaching lasting several weeks provides initiation to rural school work.

There are further training courses for rural teachers during the summer months, as well as seminars (with visits to experimental schools, etc.), during the school year.

Pupils who have completed the rural primary school course may enrol in teacher training schools if they pass the entrance examination.

Appointment procedure and salaries are the same for teachers in rural and urban areas (teachers in one-teacher schools receive special allowances).

Rural teachers may be transferred to a town and vice versa.

## ACTION AIMED AT PROVIDING EQUAL EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES

One-teacher schools do exist. Their pupils follow in general the complete primary curriculum.

There are also rural central schools providing more advanced instruction. These are higher primary schools (4 classes after the fourth school year, varied specialized courses, instruction in foreign languages, etc.).

The system of pupil transport is more general than that of boarding schools, which is not very developed. The establishment of higher primary schools is a feature of the education reform carried out since 1945.

## MISCELLANEOUS

Documents attached to the reply :

*Lehrpläne für Volksschulen* (including rural schools), Bundesverlag für Unterricht, Wissenschaft und Kunst, Vienna, 1945, 119 p.

Ludwig LANG. *Landschule und ländliche Erziehung in Österreich*, 2. Auflage 1949, 314 p., same publisher.

Ludwig LANG. *Das Schulhaus der Gegenwart*, 1952, 314 p., same publisher.

Ludwig LANG. *Landschulerneuerung-Landschulplan*, 1953.

Ludwig LANG. *Erziehung in dieser Zeit*, 1955, same publisher (with observations on rural schools).

# BELGIUM

*From the reply sent by the Ministry of Education*

## INTRODUCTORY NOTE

Belgium is a small country with an ancient civilization, very densely populated and provided with numerous and easy communications, a country in which, for reasons both historical and geographical, the way of life in rural areas is very similar to that in urban areas, especially since the last war.

No educational legislation or regulations make any distinction between the two.

In 1914 the act which made education compulsory still included special clauses for rural areas regarding seasonal holidays, but they have since fallen into disuse.

On the contrary, the opposite tendency may be noted, that is to say the abandonment of all types of rural or agricultural instruction in favour of urban instruction. Primary rural schools are losing their pupils, who go to swell the population of town schools, and agricultural instruction in general is faced with the same difficulties of recruitment as in the majority of advanced countries.

The secondary schools which exist are to be found in small towns and belong, in fact, to urban surroundings.

## ADMINISTRATION

There is no special administrative body charged with the organization of teaching in rural zones. No official distinction is made between education in towns and that in the country.

Approximately an eighth of the population derives its livelihood directly from agriculture.

According to some estimates farmers represent only 37% of the working population in the villages and 12% of the working population of the whole kingdom.

## ORGANIZATION

As stated above, practically no difference is now made. Where some slight variations occur as regards the aim of the teaching they are due to the personal initiative of certain rural teachers who, for instance, are inclined to attach more importance to natural science and direct their attention more particularly to agricultural objectives. This distinction also shows a similar tendency to disappear however.

The number of years' compulsory schooling and the ages at which it begins and ends are the same everywhere: from 6 to 14 years.

Certain boys and girls above the age of 14, few in number, who have signed a contract of apprenticeship, are subject to compulsory attendance

at supplementary courses organized on Thursday afternoons during the winter season in the principal town of the province. Any absence without justification involves a reduction of the family allowance allotted to the parents in the month during which such unjustified absence has been recorded. These supplementary courses take two years for those apprentices who pass the examination at the end of each section and longer for those obliged to repeat one or other year.

Rural classes are for the most part one-teacher schools and are mixed; they group together children from six to fourteen, while in town schools only those aged six to twelve years are together and there is generally a separate class for each year. At the age of twelve the children have normally completed the six-year primary course and then pass on to a secondary school.

The figures quoted below give a maximum of 1,200 class hours per school year.

In fact 400 half-days per school year (and 25 hours weekly) are required by law. However, the authorities who govern the schools (private school boards, local councils) may require more. In rural areas classes are held daily from 8 a.m. to 11 a.m. and 1 p.m. to 4 p.m.

Rural schools are mixed in the proportion of 9 : 10 and are taught by schoolmasters. As a rule, the boys have Thursday afternoon free, while the girls attend needlework classes taken by special mistresses. The girls have Saturday afternoon free. During this half-day the boys attend theoretical and practical science classes on subjects connected with agriculture and cattle breeding.

The number of pupils per teacher is highly variable : from 15 to 35 according to the size of the village.

Post-primary education : After the primary school, the boys and girls in rural areas have but slight opportunities of further education and of learning to become farmers. Young people in rural areas are, moreover, less and less inclined to take an interest in agriculture.

For boys, the Ministry of Agriculture organizes post-school agricultural courses, comprising 100 hours of instruction during the winter. These courses are given by rural schoolmasters, who hold the requisite diploma (post-school agricultural course teachers).

This same Ministry periodically organizes teaching courses for schoolmasters and confers the required diploma.

For the girls there are itinerant domestic science schools. • These are also organized by the Ministry of Agriculture. They hold classes of three or six months' duration in the villages. These schools, being inadequate in number, fail to meet the demand and the need. It should be stated that these courses are in nowise compulsory.

Secondary schools and vocational and technical schools of all types are becoming more and more numerous, but are available under identical conditions to the whole population. Agricultural colleges train agricultural technicians taking up, in general, colonial careers.

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#### CURRICULA, SYLLABUSES, METHODS

As stated above there is no difference in principle as regards curricula and subjects taught.

The aim set by the promoters of the new curriculum for elementary education applies to all schools in the country. Prior to it and in the same spirit the ministerial circular of 15th June, 1935, constituted the first attempt on a large scale to apply to all schools throughout the country the principle of basing the entire education of children aged 6 to 10 years on the prevailing local and regional conditions.

The same number of hours is everywhere devoted to each subject. Suggestions and directions issued are likewise the same. There are no special textbooks.

As the study of local conditions constitutes the basis of the curriculum, rural schools are privileged in this connection: a richer natural enrolment which is more readily accessible, more varied, more related to the child's life and that of his family, numerous family contacts, etc.

A single exception to this system may be noted: the teaching of domestic science. Agricultural domestic science schools still differ partially from urban domestic science schools as regards their syllabus. They comprise courses in agriculture, horticulture, flower growing and floral art, dairy work and small animal breeding. The cooking lessons utilize primarily (though not exclusively) the produce of the farm vegetable garden and orchard. Courses in mending, dressmaking and the care of clothes and household linen are usually highly appreciated in these classes (doubtless the interest taken in these courses arises from the spirit of economy and saving which still animates rural communities).

Nevertheless, a very marked tendency to uniformity is shown, due to the fact that domestic life in rural areas is coming to resemble more and more that of urban areas.

The suggestions or directions concerning methods to be employed in the schools are the same for the various schools. The subjects dealt with certainly vary but, whether it be a case of urban or of rural schools, the whole of children's knowledge should be related to clear, precise concepts, spontaneously acquired by pupils in a live and interesting context arising from a concrete situation which suggests a multiplicity of varied activities.

#### TEACHING STAFF

The teacher is trained in a state, provincial or approved training school. The length of the course is the same for all and the young men and women receive a training which fits them to teach both in town and country. There no longer exists any difference in the type of training. Twenty years ago, the old agricultural course for rural teachers was abolished.

At the training school study lasts four years (from 15 to 19 years of age), following the lower secondary course (from 12 to 15 years).

As regards facilities for further training, these vary greatly in town and country areas. The rural teacher is practically thrown on his own resources. Apart from provincial and central education libraries, public libraries and any periodicals to which he can subscribe, his opportunities are strictly limited.

Appointment, salaries, etc. : Appointments are made by the authority responsible for the school and salaries are related to the size of the commune

in question : under 50,000 inhabitants : from 50 to 100,000 inhabitants; from 100,000 to 200,000; over 200,000 inhabitants.

Various allowances are provided for heads of schools, those in possession of special qualifications, etc.

Possibility of transfer : Statutes being the same there is no obstacle to transfer.

#### ACTION AIMED AT PROVIDING EQUAL EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES

Social assistance : The situation is the same everywhere.

One-teacher schools or schools with a limited number of teachers : Each village has its school, which in small villages means a one-teacher school, but always with the full time-table. There are no schools with a reduced time-table.

Up till recent years, the opportunities for country children to attend secondary schools at a reasonable cost were limited. These children had to go to boarding schools, which only families in comfortable circumstances could afford. However with the creation of lower secondary schools, *athénées* and technical schools, becoming ever more numerous in rural areas, it may be anticipated that, in the matter of a few years, children of 12 to 14 years will no longer be found, apart from rare exceptions, in rural classes.

In fact the role of the central provincial school is assumed by the lower secondary school (for children of 12 to 15 years).

Teaching by broadcasting and correspondence for isolated areas : The problem does not arise in Belgium, where each village has its own school.

School broadcasting has so far made fairly limited progress both in the country and in the town.

## BRAZIL

*From the reply sent by the Brazilian Centre of Educational Research and from additional information*

### ADMINISTRATION

Brazil, which is a federated republic consisting of twenty states, a Federal District and five territories, offers a great variety of educational systems in the field of primary education and teacher training.

In some states there are special bodies for the organization of education in rural zones within the framework of institutions under the control of secretariats or departments of education (for example, Ceara, Maranhao, Minas Gerais, Paraiba, Rio Grande do Sul, São Paulo). These bodies are also sometimes responsible for certain aspects of community development.

As an example are given the main functions of the branch in question in the state of Minas Gerais : (a) drawing up syllabuses for rural primary schools and regional teacher training courses; (b) increasing educational efficiency by studying and experimenting with methods suited to the environment and likely to improve teacher training; (c) organizing vacation, refresher, training and other courses for rural teachers; (d) issuing technical instructions for headmasters and teachers; (e) helping to draw up laws and regulations for primary education and teacher training in rural areas; (f) encouraging and guiding private initiative in the establishment and management of educational establishments, institutions and associations; (g) encouraging the development of educational associations which supplement teaching, such as agricultural clubs, canteens, cooperatives, etc.; (h) publishing rural education bulletins and other similar documents; (i) allotting duties to technical staff and collaborators in the department.

The criteria for distinguishing between rural and urban zones are not the same in all the states. In particular, account is taken of population density, distances between agricultural estates (large properties where many workers live), the nature of local economic activities and means of transport. A small isolated town is considered as part of the rural zone.

The rural population makes up 63.8% of the total.

### ORGANIZATION

Educational aims are basically the same everywhere, but in practice efforts are made to adapt them to environment.

The state of Rio Grande do Sul, however, has published on this point principles setting out particular aims for rural education. Here, rural teaching should help towards a better appreciation of the human and social value of rural labour, the improvement of living conditions both



material and cultural in rural communities and the technical progress of their work.

The number of years' primary education is in principle five. In practice, in rural areas, there are three years of study. This period falls between the ages of 7 and 14.

The daily number of class hours in rural areas is  $4\frac{1}{2}$  (including 30 minutes' recreation). The annual number of school days varies between 140 and 160, which makes 560 to 640 hours per year. Periods of schooling are the same throughout the country, except in the state of Rio Grande do Sul where in rural areas they are adapted to the agricultural seasons.

Children often repeat their class, so that it is difficult to calculate the percentage of enrolments. The numbers of pupils enrolled in 1956 in the first three primary years were 1.5 million, 407,000 and 208,000 respectively.

The number of pupils per teacher varies considerably from one region to another. The average is 35. In some isolated schools there are sometimes only twenty pupils. Absence is frequent in rural areas. Generally speaking, 70% of the children on the rolls attend.

Within the compulsory education system, there are no special courses for pupils leaving primary schools in rural areas.

#### CURRICULA, SYLLABUSES, METHODS

At the elementary level there is no difference in curriculum between rural and urban schools. But in rural areas elements of agriculture, horticulture, tree growing, bee keeping and rural crafts are added to the ordinary course.

The number of hours devoted to each subject is generally the same everywhere.

There are no special textbooks for rural zones.

#### TEACHING STAFF

Many of the teachers in rural areas have had no special educational training and are not established. Others are trained in rural teachers' schools where the course takes four years (after complete primary education). In the states of Pernambuco and Bahia the course takes five years. Complete educational studies for teachers cover three years after the first secondary school stage. It is largely urban teachers who take this course. The states of São Paulo and Rio Grande do Sul, however, require, this training for rural teachers also.

In the states of Rio de Janeiro, Rio Grande do Norte and Espírito Santo an experiment is being made in giving an intensive accelerated training to "regents" for primary schools where the supply of teachers is particularly difficult. Those who take this course sometimes receive free board and lodging.

In several states there are various vacation courses to raise the professional standard of rural teachers. They are organized and subsidized by the federal administration (national campaign for rural education

and national institute for educational studies) or by the rural education offices of the different states.

Rural teachers generally receive free accommodation.

Promotion and transfer from one zone to another depend on the number of points acquired by teachers on a complex scale which takes account particularly of marks obtained during training, length of rural service, special courses taken, the teacher's contribution to community development, etc. In calculating points, service in rural areas counts as double. Although it is expressly laid down in the regulations that promotion and transfer do not necessarily go together, in practice, when a teacher is promoted, there is a parallel progression from outlying areas to district centres and then on to towns.

#### ACTION AIMED AT PROVIDING EQUAL EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES

Facilities for education in rural areas are of necessity more difficult than in urban zones owing to sparse population, a lower standard of living, obstacles to the recruitment of staff and transport problems.

To assist rural inhabitants and increase their material well-being, the government of the state of Rio de Janeiro has opened twelve rural social centres attached to rural schools. The aim of these centres is to improve living conditions in rural communities. Their main activities are :

- (a) to support rural schools to the full, so that they may become as far as possible small farms;
- (b) to develop the community's leisure pursuits;
- (c) to cultivate a taste for music and traditional art (folk art) among the pupils and inhabitants of the area;
- (d) to run practical courses in dressmaking, needlework, cooking, etc.;
- (e) to set up medical and dental services for pupils and, as far as possible, for the least fortunate inhabitants;
- (f) to diffuse practical knowledge of use in daily life.

The rural school is generally a one-teacher school. There are, however, rural schools with from two to four teachers and also larger rural school units, but these are rare as yet.

Broadcasting is not particularly used for the education of children in isolated areas, and neither are correspondence courses.

# BULGARIA

*From the reply sent by the Ministry of Education and Culture*

## INTRODUCTION

In Bulgaria, in accordance with the Constitution : " Every citizen has a right to education. Education is secular, based on democratic and progressive principles and accessible to all citizens without distinction of sex, nationality or religion. Racial minorities have a right to be educated in their mother tongue and to develop their national culture; the study of the Bulgarian language is, however, compulsory. Educational rights are provided for by state schools... Instruction in all general education schools (from the 1st to the 11th class) is given in accordance with uniform curricula, syllabuses and textbooks. Primary education (from the 1st to 7th class) is free and compulsory for all children of Bulgarian nationality from 7 to 15 years."

These legal requirements determine the nature of educational administration. There is no special administrative body to deal with rural schools. The Ministry of Education and Culture controls all lower and complete primary schools both rural and urban through the education and culture departments of the executive committees of the people's county councils and district councils (municipal areas and urban districts). These departments deal with the educational and administrative aspects of the schools. They have their own school inspectors.

Except from a geographical and statistical angle, any division of the population into rural and urban is incompatible with the spirit of a socialist state. All measures taken by the Ministry of Education and Culture and by the county and district education and culture departments in connection with general education schools are equally binding on urban and rural schools alike.

The census carried out on 1st December, 1956, shows that the rural population in Bulgaria represents 66.33% of the total population of the country.

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## ORGANIZATION

In accordance with what has been stated above, and in particular with the decree on public education, there is no difference between schools in urban areas and those in rural areas.

The aims of education, types of school, annual number of hours' instruction (704 hours a year in the 1st general education class, 736 in the 2nd, 768 in the 3rd and 4th, 918 in the 5th, 986 in the 6th and 1,020 in the 7th class) and the daily and weekly time-tables, are all alike.

The number of schools has considerably increased since 1944. There is now no locality without a school. Before 1944, 7.96% of children liable for compulsory schooling did not attend school. During the 1955-1956 and

1956-1957 school years, the percentage of these children fell to 0.36% for the whole country.

The following figures give information on the proportion of children at school in rural areas only :

Position on 31st December, 1956

Year of birth	Percentage attending school	Year of birth	Percentage attending school
1949 . . . . .	99.82%	1945 . . . . .	99.74%
1948 . . . . .	99.4 %	1944 . . . . .	99.63%
1947 . . . . .	99.92%	1943 . . . . .	99.28%
1946 . . . . .	99.92%	1942 . . . . .	99.13%

The setting up of new schools and classes at the lower primary stage (from the 1st to the 4th class) and the intermediate stage (from the 5th to the 7th class) is governed by clauses 42 and 45 of the Public Education Act, and by paragraph 3 of the instructions on the application of the Act. Schools are opened in localities with at least 7 children of compulsory school age. These schools are found principally in isolated mountain areas and are mainly lower primary schools.

In rural as in urban schools, there is, in principle, a maximum of 40 children in a class; where two classes work in the same room the maximum is 35. When the number of pupils in a class exceeds these limits, new classes, separate or working together, are formed.

The average number of lower primary pupils per class is at present 36 or 37 in towns and 26 in villages. For the intermediate stage the average is 35 or 36 in towns and 24 or 25 in villages.

There are no class distinctions among citizens. Children who successfully complete their primary education, in rural as in urban schools, have the right to continue their studies in general secondary or vocational schools. There are no special schools for children leaving rural primary schools. Approximately 85% of all children successfully completing their primary education (7th class) continue their studies in general or vocational schools.

CURRICULA, SYLLABUSES, METHODS

There is no difference in school syllabuses and teaching methods between urban and rural schools, nor in the number, nomenclature and content of the subjects taught or textbooks used.

TEACHING STAFF

There are no specifically rural teacher training schools.

Rural and urban teachers have the same status. They are trained at the university, in institutes or in training colleges according to the type of school for which they train. No account is taken of whether they will teach in town or country. The accent is on quality of training for all teachers. Whether they teach in town or country, all have the same opportunities for further training in their profession by attending further training institutes and taking correspondence courses (without interrupting their daily work).

Conditions of appointment are the same in town and country.

Lower primary and primary teachers are appointed by the local education and culture departments under regulations approved by the Ministry.

There is nothing to prevent village teachers from going to work in a town, and vice versa.

There is no difference in salary between town and country. Rural teachers, however, receive in addition to their salary remuneration in kind, in accordance with a government decree providing free lodging, heat and light for themselves and their families. Further, rural teachers who possess no land and are not members of an agricultural work community, are allotted a plot of fertile land for their personal use.

#### ACTION AIMED AT PROVIDING EQUAL EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES

There is no difference in social assistance for town and country children. Family cash allowances received by workers and employees in industry and administration in town and country, in machine-and-tractor stations and in work cooperatives are equal, where the number of children is the same. In villages as in towns, general secondary school pupils are given good food in school canteens for the cost price of the produce, all other expenses being borne by the State.

To give all children of compulsory school age, even those in the most remote parts of the country, the opportunity of studying, there exist complete lower primary schools where four classes work under the direction of one teacher. There are also complete primary, lower and upper primary schools with two or three teachers according to the number of classes working together in the same room. The instruction given in these schools is the same as in all general education schools. Efforts are being made however to do away with this system. To this end, boarding accommodation attached to the nearest school is being provided for intermediate stage pupils living in remote districts (more than 3 Km. from a locality with a primary school). In these establishments pupils are housed free of charge and placed under the constant supervision of educators. There are 349 such hostels and boarding establishments, housing 9,195 children, at regional primary and upper primary schools.

Children in less remote places are provided with free conveyance to school by public transport. The tendency is to open boarding establishments at lower and upper primary schools for these pupils also.

There are no correspondence courses for pupils in isolated areas.

# **BYELORUSSIA**

*From the reply sent by the Ministry of Education*

## **ADMINISTRATION**

**Administrative bodies :** The organization and administration of education for children in rural areas is the duty of the local representatives of Soviet authority and the local branches of the education authority. In accordance with the laws adopted by the Byelorussian government, the local political and education authorities deal with practical measures for achieving the school attendance of all town and country children. The execution of this task is greatly facilitated by the support of public opinion and by public bodies, collective forms and cultural organizations.

**Demarcation of rural and urban areas :** In Byelorussia the system of education is uniform. There is therefore no difference between the types of school in rural and in urban areas. The government has passed a law establishing the principle of compulsory seven-year general education and dealing with the extension of general secondary education both in towns and in the country.

In rural areas as in the towns, a vast network of seven-year and general secondary schools has been created. This network suffices for the admission of all children obliged to follow the compulsory seven-year course as well as those enrolled in general secondary schools.

## **ORGANIZATION**

There is no difference between urban and rural schools as regards the duration of compulsory education, the age of the pupils at the beginning and end of the compulsory education period, the annual and weekly number of class hours and the percentage of enrolments. All children having reached the age of seven are obliged to attend school up till the termination of the seven-year course and thereafter they pass on to secondary education (eighth to tenth school year).

Pupils from rural areas having completed the primary course must attend classes V to VII in a seven-year or a secondary school. The network of schools in rural areas is sufficient to enable all children to complete these three years of study at the village school.

## **CURRICULA, SYLLABUSES, METHODS**

The organization of studies is the same in the town as in the country as regards syllabuses, the number of hours, the content of each subject, methods and textbooks. Teachers in rural schools illustrate the subject they teach with examples drawn from agricultural work and from the environment. Nevertheless Byelorussian schools, whether urban or rural, provide their pupils with an identical body of theoretical and practical knowledge and habits.

### TEACHING STAFF

The training of teachers in urban and in rural areas is identical from the point of view of the various matters referred to in the questionnaire, except as regards salaries. These are lower in rural schools. On the other hand rural teachers enjoy certain important advantages and privileges : free board, heating and lighting at the expense of the State. The property of teachers in rural schools who hold land and possess cattle is not subject to any tax.

### ACTION AIMED AT PROVIDING EQUAL EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES

**Social Assistance :** Necessitous pupils in rural schools receive assistance at the expense of the State, business undertakings and collective farms. In schools where it is necessary or where pupils are sufficiently numerous, snack bars and school canteens are provided.

**One-teacher schools :** In order to facilitate the task of parents in bringing up their children, a primary school is generally established in each rural locality.

In small communities, where the number of pupils does not exceed 20, the school is a one-teacher school.

In such schools the uniform curriculum of primary education is followed as in the others. The pupils of one-teacher primary schools complete the whole course of study for each school year and thereafter continue their studies in seven-year and secondary schools, in the same way as the other children.

**Centralization :** The Ministry of Education and its local representatives consider that concentration of rural pupils in large primary schools constitutes a positive measure from the educational aspect, since it enables each class to have its own teacher. The education authority has recourse to this method where circumstances permit. Schools in which each class is entrusted to a different teacher are in general situated in large rural localities and in towns.

In view of the fact, however, that primary schools exist in all localities and that, as a rule, the pupils of the primary school have not to cover a distance exceeding 2.5 Kms. no boarding schools have been linked up with primary schools.

In bad weather or on account of other unfavourable circumstances children are provided with free transport to school at the expense of the collective or state farms, machine and tractor stations and business undertakings.

**Teaching by broadcasting and correspondence :** In view of the fact that all children of school age can attend a school it is not indispensable to have recourse to this means for providing education for children in rural areas, but this does not prevent many schools from having a wireless set.

# CAMBODIA

*From the reply sent by the Ministry of National Education*

## ADMINISTRATION

There is no special administrative body for the organization of education in rural zones.

So far, no systematic lines have been drawn between rural and urban areas.

A statistical inquiry is being prepared on this question. Almost the whole country is rural.

## ORGANIZATION

There are no differences. It may be mentioned, however, that there are generally more pupils per class in rural areas. This is because it is very difficult to refuse children seeking admission.

There are no special post-primary courses or establishments for pupils from rural primary schools. Agricultural vocational schools are administered in the same way as other vocational schools.

## CURRICULA, SYLLABUSES, METHODS

In this connection also, there is no systematic distinction : curricula, the number of hours per subject and syllabus content are the same in town and country.

The central authority tries in various ways (lectures, pamphlets, films, courses, etc.) to instill the necessity for adapting curricula to particular local conditions.

As regards textbooks, special booklets are issued by the agriculture and health departments of the Ministry of Education on the teaching of these subjects in rural areas.

## TEACHING STAFF

At the moment there is no distinction. Teachers in rural areas may, for example, be subsequently appointed to a town post, or vice versa.

The situation may change when teachers trained in the new rural training school (opening planned for September, 1957) take up posts, i.e. in four years' time. This school is to contain 140 pupils (70 boys and 70 girls). At the time of writing, there is only the traditional teacher training school with its five-year course (four years' general education and one year's professional training). The course in the new rural training school will be of four years' duration. If after one or two years' trial the results prove satisfactory, other rural training schools will be opened in other areas.

Entrance to both types of training school takes place at the same stage (6th primary year).



Newly qualified teachers from both types of school will be classified under the same system : as complementary course teachers if they possess their school leaving certificate, and as lower primary teachers if they do not.

Since almost all the country is rural, it seems advisable to institute, and later extend, this type of teacher training. The traditional training school will become the training establishment for secondary school staff. There is, however, a danger that diverging attitudes will develop in the profession between those trained at the old and those trained at the new school. Cambodia has therefore begun to introduce serving teachers to modern educational methods, and to make them familiar with rural conditions.

The new school will not be called a rural teacher training school, as the term might give offense and prejudice is very real. It will simply be called the " Educational Training Centre ".

#### ACTION AIMED AT PROVIDING EQUAL EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES

*Social assistance:* Cambodia has a scholarship system, which is a heavy burden on the national budget; it aims to give deserving children from rural areas the opportunity of continuing their studies in towns.

*One-teacher schools:* There are one-teacher schools in rural areas, but they are not very numerous, as it is considered that teachers cannot effectively deal at the same time with children at several different stages. One-teacher schools generally cover only two or three different classes, the first ones. Priests (Buddhist) give free voluntary assistance when the teacher is overworked.

*Centralization:* This is the general tendency; efforts are made to concentrate pupils from different rural localities into central schools. The following rule is applied : three lower primary schools (first 3 classes) feed a six-year complementary primary school (complete primary education). Boarding schools had been established, but as they were too heavy a burden, and as there are now complete primary schools almost everywhere, these boarding schools are gradually being abolished.

The use of school broadcasting or correspondence teaching is not within the present means of Cambodia. Moreover, the problem is not as acute as in other countries, since all rural areas are easily accessible. Travelling libraries, mobile cinemas and demonstration teams will soon be available.

## CANADA

*From the reply prepared by the Canadian Education Association from information supplied by the provincial Departments of Education*

### ADMINISTRATION

Each provincial Department of Education is responsible for organizing educational administration both in the urban and rural schools of the province. Provincial inspectorates or superintendencies in all provinces may therefore include urban and rural areas under one supervisor.

In most of Canada the single school district was established in the nineteenth century as the type of local education authority best suited to conditions in rural areas at the time. Under this scheme a single classroom school is operated by an elected board of trustees, usually three in number. During the past 25 years a major administrative achievement in a majority of the provinces has been to transfer local responsibility from the small school district to a larger administrative unit in which typically a large number of single or multi-roomed schools are administered by one school board of elected trustees. This procedure gives rural areas the same advantages in education as those enjoyed by the compact urban centres: uniform tax scales evenly spread over a large region and population, increased economy and efficiency in finance and purchasing, better school building, equalized salary scales for teachers and improved facilities for health services and such subjects as art, music, home economics, physical education and industrial arts.

The chief difficulty in making the change to larger administrative units has been to secure consent, support, or at least experimental acceptance, from the people locally.

In Canada's three most western provinces the organization of larger administrative units has been completed, and in Alberta, at least, the traditional category of rural schools has been almost eliminated. In Ontario the majority of school districts have taken steps to unite in somewhat larger units of administration. Each central school board in the Protestant school system of Quebec administers several schools of varying size. New Brunswick and Nova Scotia have respected and retained local democracy in small school districts, but have secured the adoption of intermediate financial units in which all the school districts in a county pool their financial resources for purposes of ordinary expenditure.

In a few provinces, however, there is still no clearly defined movement toward modification of local school administration. In Quebec, for example, where more than 86% of the population is Roman Catholic and most of it is French-speaking, schools in rural areas of the Catholic system are ordinarily administered by boards which look after several schools in a district roughly equivalent in size to a parish or township. The provincial education authority for Catholic education resists the multiplication of local boards, but it has not been faced with the extreme

problem of single-teacher trustee boards which were the rule in most other provinces. In Newfoundland, also, conditions are unique. Schools are operated for the most part by four religious denominations with the help of grants from the central authority. There are no elected boards of the type familiar to most Canadians, and there is no local taxation for schools.

In spite of the trend to larger administrative units and their accompanying central schools, there are still over 16,000 one-room, one-teacher schools in Canada. Enrolment in these schools varies widely from less than a dozen to 50 or 60, and instruction may be given to all grades from I to VIII, IX, or X.

### ORGANIZATION

Some provinces have special provisions whereby students from rural areas may be exempted from compulsory school attendance at the age of fourteen or fifteen. Compulsory attendance in rural and village school sections in Nova Scotia is from seven to fourteen years of age; in urban sections of the same province, it is from six to sixteen years of age. The lower age limit in rural sections of Nova Scotia may be changed to six years, and in both Nova Scotia and Manitoba, the local authority may raise the upper age limit for compulsory attendance to fifteen or sixteen years.

In general, there are no differences between schools in rural and urban areas with regard to the aims assigned to education by local enactment, the number of years of compulsory schooling, the age at which schooling begins and ends (with the above-noted exceptions), the number of class hours per day or per year.

Facilities for post-primary continuation or further education courses in secondary education establishments and vocational schools are open equally to urban and rural students. At present not all rural areas are equally well provided for in the field of secondary education, and it is therefore sometimes more difficult for a rural pupil to receive a secondary education. However, centralized rural high schools, to which pupils from surrounding areas are transported by bus, are an outstanding feature of the larger administrative unit. In many provinces, these schools offer vocational education in agriculture planned for students preparing to farm and those engaged in farming, by means of courses utilizing textbook material and supplemented by practical work. This is part of a continuing tendency in many provinces to establish rural high schools which have staffs of several teachers instructing in commercial, technical and vocational subjects, in addition to those which meet the requirements for admission to institutions of higher learning.

### CURRICULA, SYLLABUSES, METHODS

There is no fundamental difference between the curricula of rural and urban schools, but only a shift in emphasis.

The number of hours allotted to each subject is the same in both town and country schools, as are the various items figuring in the syllabus of each subject. There are no special textbooks for rural schools, and

in general, suggestions or directions concerning methods to be employed in rural schools, particularly with regard to adaptation to environment and needs, are the same as those outlined by departments of education for urban schools. A few provinces do include in their course of study a brief section on rural schools in which they suggest ways in which teaching methods can be adapted to conditions peculiar to one-teacher schools.

#### TEACHING STAFF

Teachers destined for both rural and urban areas are trained in the same institutions. Normally, a teacher is not appointed to a school until after graduation from a teacher training establishment, but these institutions offer teaching practice in both rural and urban schools as part of the training course. Salaries offered in rural areas are usually less than in urban areas in most provinces, although here also the establishment of larger administrative units has tended towards equalization. Salaries, however, are usually a matter for negotiation between either the teacher or the teacher's association and the local school authority. In practice, since urban areas are generally more prosperous than rural, they are frequently able to select teachers with higher qualifications because they can offer higher salaries. For the same reason, it is often more difficult for a teacher to transfer from a rural to an urban area than vice versa, and since the institutions which offer further professional training are usually located in cities it is perhaps easier for an urban teacher living in such a city to take advantage of the facilities of these institutions than for a rural teacher to do so. It should be noted that teachers in remote areas of some provinces sometimes receive an isolation allowance, but this is intended only to help overcome the increased cost of living which pertains in remote regions of Canada.

#### ACTION AIMED AT PROVIDING EQUAL EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES

It has already been mentioned that the small one-teacher school in which children are able to complete the full curriculum of the compulsory education period is disappearing in many provinces in favour of central schools. At the secondary level these central schools (called variously district high schools, consolidated high schools, regional schools, etc.) serve an area containing a number of primary schools. Pupils proceed from the one-room or small rural school to the larger high school on completion of Grade VI, VII, or VIII. In Saskatchewan, Prince Edward Island and Ontario, rural primary schools may carry instruction through to Grade X.

There is also a trend in some provinces to concentrate primary pupils from several districts in centralized schools. Where centralization is in effect, at either the primary or secondary level, pupils are transported by bus to the central school. In Saskatchewan and Alberta and British Columbia, a few dormitories are provided for high school pupils living beyond the range of bus service.

School broadcasts are available to all the children of each province of Canada, but the broadcasts are meant to serve as a complement to actual teaching. Children in isolated areas are instructed by correspondence

schools in all the provincial systems of Canada except the Quebec Catholic system if : (1) a regular school cannot be established; (2) pupils cannot be boarded in nearby areas where schools are in operation; (3) pupils cannot be transported to a nearby school; (4) a pupil is unable to attend a school for reasons of health. Correspondence courses are also provided in several provinces for children who are actually in attendance at schools, if they are of secondary level and the teacher is not qualified to teach their grade.

In most provinces, primary and secondary courses are offered by the correspondence branch of the department of education, although the demand for primary courses is steadily declining with the development of more adequate and readily available school facilities.

# CEYLON

*From the reply sent by the Ministry of External Affairs*

## ADMINISTRATION

There is no special administrative body responsible for organizing education in rural zones. Rural and urban schools are administered by the same officers both in the head office and in provincial offices.

The proportion of population in rural zones to the population of the whole country is roughly 85%. The demarcation between rural areas and others is that rural areas are locally administered by village committees while urban areas are administered by town councils and municipal councils. There are 403 village committees as against 38 town councils, 36 urban councils and 7 municipal councils.

## ORGANIZATION

There is no difference as regards the aims of education, the number of years of compulsory schooling, the annual number of class hours and the number of class hours per day, except that rural schools generally meet in a single session from 8.00 a.m. to 1.30 p.m. while urban schools work in two sessions with a lunch interval of about an hour.

Data are not available for determining the difference in the percentage of enrolment.

In the great majority of rural schools the number of pupils per teacher is 27 while in many of the urban schools the rate is 15 per teacher for the first 90 pupils and 20 thereafter. The difference, however, is not as between rural and urban schools, but as between government schools and assisted schools. In the case of the assisted "English" schools which are governed by a different code the number of pupils per teacher is lower, on the basis that a greater variety of subjects has to be taught.

Education is compulsory only between the ages of 5 and 14 but a good portion of pupils both in rural and in urban schools stay on for several years more. Many rural schools have classes up to the Senior School Certificate or General Certificate of Education level. In about 45 rural central schools, pupils may proceed further, up to Higher School Certificate and university entrance.

## CURRICULA, SYLLABUSES, METHODS

There is no difference in the curricula except that in rural schools where land for agriculture is available more time may be spent in the teaching of this subject.

The number of hours allotted to each subject is the same, as well as the items in the syllabus of each subject, except that a subject like general science is taught in urban rather than in rural schools.

There is no general differentiation in method and there are no separate textbooks for rural schools.

#### TEACHING STAFF

Rural school teachers are educated in one or the other of the national languages (they are trained in primary and junior training colleges where the medium of instruction is either Sinhalese or Tamil). The majority of teachers in urban schools have been educated through the medium of English in English training colleges.

In both types of training college the course is of 2 years' duration.

There is no further professional training for trained teachers unless they graduate and proceed to post-graduate training.

Minimum entrance qualifications for both the national media training colleges and for the English medium training colleges are the Senior School Certificate, in Sinhalese or Tamil in one case and in English in the other.

There is no difference in the method of recruitment or in the qualifications required.

There is no differentiation either in salaries or in special allowances.

A rural teacher may be transferred to an urban area and vice versa.

#### ACTION AIMED AT PROVIDING EQUAL EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES

No different special assistance is given to children in rural schools from that given to children in urban schools.

There is no specific plan for children from one-teacher schools or those with a limited number of teachers to be transferred to other schools where they can complete their education. But there are junior, senior and central schools centrally situated which serve primary schools in a particular area. Pupils from the smaller schools may, if they so desire, pass on to these schools.

Special mention, should be made of the system of central schools. Pupils of the correct age in the fifth or sixth year of the primary school whose parents' income is below a certain figure may proceed for scholarships in one of the 54 central schools in the island. These scholarships entitle them to free board and lodging from standard 6 right up to university entrance. The total number of these scholarships is roughly 5,000. In addition, at standard 8, pupils in schools which have no provision for teaching science sit for a science scholarship examination, and if successful are given free board and lodging in central and senior schools with facilities for the teaching of science up to the university entrance classes. The total number of these scholarships is 500.

There are no special school broadcasting courses or correspondence courses for children in isolated areas.

#### • MISCELLANEOUS

There is one category of rural schools which does not fall strictly within any of the categories named above, i.e. estate schools. These estate schools are built and maintained by the proprietors of the estates

for the purpose of providing primary education for children, mostly non-nationals who live on these estates. The government supports these schools by a grant but they cannot be regarded as falling strictly within the national scheme of education. Very few of the children in these schools stay at school even through the compulsory education period, many of them leaving quite early in order to seek employment on the estates.



# CHILE

*From the reply sent by the Ministry of Education*

## ADMINISTRATION

The Ministry of Education comprises a department of vocational and agricultural training (under the general direction of primary education and teacher training) which has under its supervision two types of rural schools or farm-schools, the *Granjas* and the *Quintas* schools.

This department has a technical adviser who supervises in particular the agricultural activities of these schools. His principal duties are technical guidance of their activities and administrative control.

Besides these pre-vocational schools there are general education rural primary schools, the technical guidance and administration of which is the task, to a varying extent, of primary school general inspectors, provincial boards of education and departmental and local education boards.

For the demarcation of zones where provisions governing rural education are applied, consideration is given to : (a) the topographical and economic characteristics of the zones; (b) the existing means of transport and communications; (c) the predominant activities of the inhabitants; (d) the school population and the percentage of illiterate adults; (e) the cultural, social and economic level of the community; (f) the characteristics of the schools established in the zones (number of courses, teaching staff, ground under cultivation, school buildings, etc.).

The percentage of the population in rural zones in proportion to the total population of the country is 40%.

## ORGANIZATION

There are certain differences between urban and rural schools, especially as regards farm-schools.

In accordance with the provisions of the general regulations for primary schools, rural schools, in addition to the aims assigned to other state schools, should strive according to their category and their type : (a) to stimulate in their pupils by means of observation and practical activities a taste for careers in agriculture and related industries; (b) to modernize routine farming processes with a view to increased production; (c) to provide a centre for all sorts of activities, interests and information which will contribute to the improvement of the standard and type of life of the community.

In accordance with the provisions of the compulsory primary education act, as amended in 1929, school attendance at rural schools is compulsory up to the fourth year of study, where there is no complete school in the area. The present tendency is to prolong compulsory attendance to the sixth year in rural zones, with a view to raising the cultural and social standard of the population in these areas.

The above-mentioned act requires, moreover, that every boy or girl aged 7 to 15 years should in principle attend the primary school; however, it must be admitted that in rural areas, there exist in practice great differences between the ages at which compulsory schooling begins and ends.

The number of class hours (45 minute periods) per year is the same in rural and in urban schools (1,125) except in farm-schools, where the average number of hours' instruction amounts to 1,825 per annum (these schools continue without interruption throughout the whole year).

The average number of class hours per day is five in urban as in rural schools. In farm-schools this average is higher (6 or 7 hours), because in addition to the hours of teaching these schools include practical work.

The number of pupils per teacher varies, but in the majority of cases it is not less than thirty. In rural one-teacher schools (third class rural schools) the master has on an average 50 pupils and has recourse to the system of combined courses.

Pupils leaving the rural primary school may continue their studies in the following establishments: vocational classes, given at complete rural schools, in which the pupils receive pre-vocational training; elementary agricultural schools; *consolidadas* or *unificadas* schools, in which pupils are given the opportunity of continuing academic or vocational studies; rural teacher training schools; industrial schools.

#### CURRICULA, SYLLABUSES, METHODS

There are no special curricula for rural primary schools; the syllabus approved for all primary schools in the Republic in 1948 and put to the test from 1949 onwards is applied in these schools, consideration being given to the characteristics of the natural and social environment.

The farm-schools, which are typical rural institutions with a well defined agricultural bias have a special syllabus of agricultural training comprising subjects such as general agriculture, plant diseases, viticulture, arboriculture, elements of veterinary medicine, agricultural mechanics, etc.

As regards the number of hours devoted to each subject there is no great difference between urban and rural schools, apart from the farm-schools, in which lessons on subjects of general culture gradually give place to agricultural training from the first to the third year.

The content of the subjects in the curriculum is fundamentally similar in rural and in urban schools; any differences to be found arise from adaptation to the natural, social and economic environment.

Suggestions or directions relating to methods of work are in general the same for both types of school. Nevertheless the following methods are recommended for rural schools: team work, consideration of the natural and cultural environment, the project method, centres of interest, teaching and working units, etc.

The adaptation of curricula to the rural environment is effected by taking into consideration: (a) the various objectives to be attained by rural schools; (b) the multiple aspects of the concrete environment (natural, social, economic, etc.); (c) the needs and interests of the pupils and of the members of the community. This adaptation is achieved chiefly by means of activities related to typical community problems

such as : cultivation and maintenance of a school garden, excursions into the surrounding country to become acquainted with the school environment (cultivation, breeding of animals, lie of the land, etc.), talks on various subjects to instruct the pupils, their parents and the members of the community, carrying out of manual work for the profit of the school and of the community (building of hen houses, pigsties, stables, hutches, etc.), celebration of patriotic festivals to inculcate love of country and respect for civic life.

#### TEACHING STAFF

Teachers required for rural primary schools receive training in rural training schools, appropriately situated, where guidance and training in the agricultural activities which they will have to teach can be effectively carried out.

The duration of study in these establishments is six years as in urban training schools.

Teaching staff in rural schools have the same opportunities for further training as those in urban schools. Nevertheless further training courses for rural teachers comprise some subjects or activities closely related to their duties, as for instance : rural sociology, first aid, home education and industry, manual work, rural building, organization and administration of the rural school, etc.

Entrance to the training school (rural or urban) is at present open to the following : (a) for admission to the first year, those pupils who have obtained the primary school certificate (six-year course) or those who have obtained the second year certificate for academic studies in a lycée (eight-year course); (b) for admission to the fifth year, young people of both sexes, who have obtained the secondary school leaving certificate (12 years of study).

The selection of candidates for teacher training schools is based on examinations to test general capacity, on appreciation of personal qualities and vocational aptitude for teaching, supplemented by medical and dental examinations.

In appointing teachers in rural or urban schools the type of school (rural or urban) in which the applicants were trained is taken into account with a view to ensuring that they teach in the environment for which they have been trained. Thus teachers coming from rural training schools are appointed to rural or semi-urban schools and not until after six years of effective service in such a school are they permitted to apply for transfer to an urban school (decree No. 280 of July, 1933).

The salaries of rural and urban teachers are identical (calculated at present on the basis of 35,160 pesos). In certain types of schools with resident pupils, as in the case of the farm-schools, teachers are entitled to board and lodging. In certain areas, far removed from urban centres, they are granted an indemnity or supplementary allowance.

#### ACTION AIMED AT PROVIDING EQUAL EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES

Social assistance granted to children from both rural and urban schools is provided for the most part by the State, which within the

limits of available funds provides two meals for necessitous children, as well as clothing and other relief. There should also be mentioned, however, the social assistance furnished by the community and that furnished by associations of parents and friends which exist for each establishment.

State aid is distributed by the school relief organizations *Juntas de Auxilio Escolar* under the control of a national organization with its headquarters in the capital.

In rural areas the one-teacher school is the system followed; the majority of these provide instruction corresponding to the first and second primary stages (first four years of study).

At present there is a move to reduce the number of schools of this type and the tendency is to replace them or transform them into complete schools, on account of the growing need to improve of the standard of life of the rural populations.

There is a marked tendency to concentrate pupils from more or less isolated localities in schools known as *escuelas concentradas* or *centralizadas* which offer their pupils the complete course of primary education. There are also *escuelas consolidadas* or *unificadas*, which provide primary, secondary and vocational education.

For children and adults living in isolated regions the only service at present available is that of the *escuelas ambulantes* (itinerant schools). These provide teaching which resembles more or less the syllabuses in force and in addition direct activities likely to help the members of these communities to resolve practical problems connected with their daily life. Thus, for instance, the teachers in charge of these schools organize activities such as the cultivation of cereals, initiation to general culinary and domestic techniques, hygiene, etc. For this purpose they have at their disposal adequate equipment (tractors, travelling libraries, etc.).

# COLOMBIA

*From documents sent by the Ministry of National Education*

## ADMINISTRATION

The administrative body charged with the organization of teaching in rural zones is the department for urban and rural schools of the Ministry of National Education. It works in close collaboration with the rural and agricultural departments.

The criteria used for demarcating rural zones, as regards educational regulations are: the population, its density, its way of life, etc. The greater part of the country's population is considered rural.

## ORGANIZATION

The differences between rural and urban schools are as follow.

The aim of the rural school is to train peasants, craftsmen and workers living in sparsely populated localities, to adapt the individual to his environment and to raise his standard of living.

The urban school has a double aim: to adapt the child to urban activities and to prepare him for secondary education.

The two types of schools have one aim in common: the thorough preparation of the individual for life in society.

With regard to the number of years' schooling in the rural school, a distinction must be made between: (a) rural schools for pupils of the same sex (boys' schools, girls' schools) covering four years with 33 class hours per week; (b) the rural *alternada* school (with alternate classes) of two years' duration, with a rather more elastic time-table in view of its special organization. In principle, the time should be divided between girls and boys. The two groups come to school in turns, with the result that the teaching hours are reduced by half as compared with schools for one sex.

The urban school comprises five years of study with 33 class hours per week.

In all three types of school the school year lasts ten months, with two intermediate holiday periods (ten and fifteen days).

In principle, the three types of school have 1,320 class hours per year, but, as already stated, the rural *alternada* school reserves half of this time for boys and the other half for girls.

The number of class hours per day is seven in all schools.

The percentage of enrolments diminishes with the age of the pupils.

There should, in principle, be a maximum of 40 pupils per class, but in practice as many as possible are taken and the proportion decreases with the age of the pupils.

Pupils who have finished the rural primary school may enter schools of arts and crafts, schools for social workers (specially for girls), agricultural teacher training schools, industrial schools, etc. They have the opportunity of passing on to the secondary school.

### CURRICULA, SYLLABUSES, METHODS

The curriculum of the rural *alternada* school comprises eight subjects. That of the rural school for pupils of the same sex includes science as an additional subject.

The curriculum of the urban school comprises other subjects also : geometry and drawing, history, geography and singing, which in the other schools form part of a global approach.

The number of class hours devoted to each branch differs in accordance with the category of the school. In rural schools the accent is on basic subjects, while in the urban schools teaching is more extensive.

The syllabus of each subject is more detailed in the urban school than in the rural school for boys or girls only and more so in this school than in the *alternada* school.

The directions as to method issued to urban and to rural teachers are completely different.

### TEACHING STAFF

Rural teachers are trained in rural, agricultural, or industrial, teacher training schools, urban teachers at the higher teacher training school.

The duration of studies is six years in the higher training school and four years in the other training schools.

To enter the higher training school it is necessary to have completed five years of primary education and to pass an entrance examination. To enter the other training schools candidates must have followed a shorter course of primary education and pass the entrance examination.

Salaries depend on the province in which the teacher works, on his place in the salary scale, on the type of school in which he teaches, etc. They vary between 100 and 300 Colombian pesos per month. In addition teachers enjoy social and insurance benefits.

The rural teacher has the possibility of transfer to an urban school; the decision rests with the inspector.

### ACTION AIMED AT PROVIDING EQUAL EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES

The one-teacher school is the usual system in rural zones.

There are no central schools.

# CUBA

*From the reply sent by the Ministry of Education*

## ADMINISTRATION

The general board of rural education is the body within the Ministry of Education charged with the organization of education in the rural schools of the Cuban Republic.

The Cuban Republic is divided, with regard to rural education, into 63 zones known as "educational missions", which correspond to the school inspection divisions. Within the framework of these zones, efforts are made to develop the vocational training of teachers and to stimulate the cultural, social and economic progress of the middle classes.

The percentage of the population of the rural zones in proportion to the total population is 43%.

## ORGANIZATION

Though legislative provisions are the same for the two types of school, the rural teacher adapts the teaching of the different subjects to his environment.

The number of years of compulsory schooling is six (between the age of 6 and 14 years) for rural as for urban children.

The number of class hours per annum is 720 (36 weeks).

The number of class hours per day is four, plus half an hour for recreation, i.e. from 8 to 12.30 or from 11 to 3.30 for rural schools, and the morning or afternoon for urban schools; in the latter the intermediate session from 11 to 3.30 does not exist. Besides the class hours, in the rural schools there is the social work carried out by the teachers, inspectors and instructors for the development of the rural population. Rural teachers are for the most part resident in the place in which they teach.

The educational missions have at their disposal experts in education, arts and crafts and home education as well as doctors, dentists, veterinary surgeons, laboratory workers, midwives and radio technicians.

According to the 1953 census, out of a total of 628,407 children aged 6 to 14 years 210,625 attended school.

The number of pupils per teacher is on an average 38 (varying from province to province between 25 and 50).

There are post-primary complementary courses, especially for boys, in country areas. Subsequent to six years of primary schooling they may continue their studies in upper primary schools known as rural centres. There are forty of these. They are boarding schools in which general education is provided corresponding to the seventh and eighth school years and special courses are offered in arts and crafts, agriculture, cattle raising and rural industries. Pupils leaving these schools may go on to provincial colleges of agriculture, polytechnical schools and

industrial technical schools. During the present school year, 46 pupils from these schools have pursued their studies in farm-schools and 33 in industrial technical schools.

The possibility of admitting young country girls to the rural centres is under consideration; after the seventh and eighth classes they will be eligible to follow courses in needlework and dressmaking, domestic economy and rural industry.

The essential preliminaries are being accomplished to permit of the opening shortly of a maritime technical centre at which training will be given in special subjects such as carpentry, naval mechanics, navigation, fishing, wireless communications and signals, meteorology, manufacture of canned foods, etc.

### CURRICULA, SYLLABUSES, METHODS

In the rural zones of certain provinces experiments are being made with curricula differing from those followed in urban schools; these curricula are chiefly inspired by the conclusions of the seminar organised at Havana in 1956 on primary education, with the assistance of experts from Unesco and the Organization of American States.

The majority of rural teachers adapt their syllabuses to their environment, by co-ordinating and grouping the subjects taught in relation to the geographic, economic and social characteristics of the region and the interests of the pupils. These characteristics and interests are in nowise identical in all rural areas, which are divided into quite distinct zones: sugar cane zones, tobacco zones, cattle raising zones, mining zones and maritime or fishing zones.

The rural school utilizes all methods calculated to render teaching vivid and active (free activities, the problem method, projects, correlation of subjects, etc.), the aim being to enable pupils to make intelligent use of the possibilities offered by their environment.

Teachers are not required to follow a given method but to show a marked bias towards the creation of an active and progressive school, designed to form and strengthen the character of the rural child by developing his intelligence, endowing him with physical well-being, a knowledge of the resources of his environment and the possibility of exploiting them.

### TEACHING STAFF

The studies taken by future rural teachers in rural training schools differ in more than one respect from those of pupils in urban training schools. Pupils in urban training schools acquire their practical training in an attached school where each class has its own master, whilst the pupils of rural training schools are trained to teach several classes simultaneously.

Rural normal schools train for teaching in a rural environment young people who are themselves products of that environment and have passed through the rural primary school. Unlike teachers with a town training subsequently sent to village schools, their one idea is not to obtain an urban post as quickly as possible. They are an integral part of their environment. The peasant regards them with respect and



they are happy to be able to act as guides and advisers with regard to problems of which they have actual experience. They talk the language of the region and in general they find there their husband or their wife as the case may be.

The duration of studies in urban training schools is four years and in rural training schools three years.

Teachers with urban or rural diplomas may enrol in the education course at one of the official universities.

Teachers in rural schools are entitled to a residence allowance the amount of which (of the order of 15 to 30% of the total salary) is related to the distance between the school and the nearest urban centre (and the main routes of communication). The greater this distance the higher is the allowance.

Recently built rural schools include lodging for the teacher permitting him not only to live comfortably, but also to be in more direct contact with the rural community.

Promotion and transfer of teachers are matters for decision by the school councils on the proposal of the district school inspector and with the final approval of the Ministry of Education, within the framework of the general regulations governing primary teaching.

Urban teachers are not transferred to rural areas.

During the last seminar held at Rubio (Venezuela) all American countries were in agreement in recognizing that teachers with rural training should remain at least three years in rural zones.

#### ACTION AIMED AT PROVIDING EQUAL EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES

Social action in rural schools differs from that which applies in urban schools.

Specialized services dealing with improvement of stock and of cultivation are of help to the school in the sphere of instruction which it gives on this subject and in its contribution to the better ordering of rural economy: gardens and various types of cultivation, rural industries, care of cattle, poultry-yard, cooperatives, etc.

Education for the home (*Hogarista rural*) has a similar effect in the sphere of domestic activities, women's health and housing. Its activities also cover the celebration of Christmas, distribution of layettes and Nutrition Week during which nutritional hygiene is taught.

Canteens in rural schools are used for the practical application of notions of arithmetic acquired at school and of knowledge of rural crafts and domestic science.

Distribution of clothing is organized in most of the rural schools with the collaboration of fathers' associations and other authorities.

From the point of view of health education, great improvements have been effected in country areas. Research has been undertaken to fight the infirmities and epidemics affecting the Cuban peasant. Within the framework of these activities the schools play a prominent role.

The dental service also plays its part in the rural school and amongst the adult population. The pupils receive regular treatment and a buco-dental card index is established; campaigns of mouth and dental hygiene are being undertaken and school dental surgeries are being installed.

Parallel action is taken through conferences and talks for the general population.

There are 5,599 rural schools. Approximately four fifths of these have only one teacher in charge of several classes, yet the complete, curriculum of study is achieved, at least that part of it which corresponds to the six years of compulsory schooling. The remainder, with few exceptions, have two teachers.

There are, however, 17 central rural schools with 6 to 9 classes, each with its own teacher.

In general the system of daily transport of pupils from their homes to the school is preferred to the boarding school system, but, as seen above, post-primary boarding schools do exist.

Since 1937, special broadcasting services have been instituted to stimulate the action undertaken in rural zones (educational and social action) and to contribute to the education of children in isolated areas.

#### MISCELLANEOUS

Documents attached to the reply :

*Informe técnico anual 1955-1956. Dirección general de la educación rural. Ministerio de Educación. 28 p.*

# CZECHOSLOVAKIA

*From the reply sent by the Ministry of Education and Culture*

## ADMINISTRATION

There is no special administrative body for the organization of education in rural zones.

## ORGANIZATION

There is no essential difference between rural and urban schools as regards the general organization of school services. The aim of education is everywhere the same. The only difference consists in the fact that the schools are larger or smaller according to the number of children of school age living in the area served by them. In small country communes there are schools (national schools) which comprise the five first classes of the eight-year (intermediate) or of the eleven-year school. Pupils belonging to the sixth year go to the nearest intermediate school.

The number of class hours per year and per day is the same throughout the country.

Those pupils who, because of bad marks, cannot finish in eight years the eight classes of compulsory schooling may finish the eight-year intermediate school course by correspondence.

National schools in small communes have at times fewer classrooms than classes. They sometimes have only one class.

In schools having few classrooms, one teacher is at times in charge of several classes. To raise the standard of teaching it is recommended in that case that the teacher should increase the weekly hours of teaching, in order that he may teach certain classes separately by changing the time-table.

## CURRICULA, SYLLABUSES, METHODS

There is no difference as to syllabuses, nor as regards the number of hours devoted to each subject.

The textbooks are the same. Nevertheless the concrete presentation of the subjects varies, since examples are taken from the environment in question.

## TEACHING STAFF

\* Teachers for rural schools are trained for their profession in the same training schools as those for urban schools.

Applicants must have terminated the eight-year intermediate school. The duration of studies (4 years) is the same for all, as well as opportunities for further study. Account is taken in this connection of the concrete working conditions of the different teachers.

The conditions of appointment are the same.

The basic salary and the allowances of teachers in rural and urban schools do not differ. Teachers in schools with reduced teaching staffs are accorded special allowances, in view of the difficulties of their task. They are increased in the case of teachers who voluntarily increase their number of working hours, in order to give separate lessons to certain classes.

Teachers in national schools study at their training school appropriate methods for teaching in schools with a reduced staff. Future teachers are given the opportunity of following a fortnight's course in such schools.

#### ACTION AIMED AT PROVIDING EQUAL EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES

The legal provisions existing in this connection apply equally to town and country. Rail and bus services are being improved and increased. School canteens may be set up everywhere. As special institutions may be mentioned the weekly boarding schools. They have been created for the benefit of pupils in isolated communities who attend intermediate or higher schools in the towns. Boarding schools exist from the sixth-year of general education onwards as well as for pupils of vocational schools.

As stated above, there are one-teacher schools or schools with a limited teaching staff in the small rural communes. The same syllabus is used for teaching there as elsewhere. To help teachers in these schools, special methodological publications are issued.

There is a tendency to limit the use of this system. For this purpose, when distances are short (about 3 Km.), recourse is had to transport of pupils to a neighbouring school, particularly from the fifth year onwards. Boarding schools are also used. It is difficult to say which of these methods is preferable; all depends on the special circumstances in each case.

It is unnecessary to use the radio or the system of teaching by correspondence. In practice each child has the possibility of attending a school within a distance of about 3 Km. from his home or else of going to a boarding school.

Sick or infirm children in the country enjoy the same special school services as those in the towns.

## DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

*From the reply sent by the Secretariat of State for  
Education and Fine Art*

### ADMINISTRATION

The Secretariat of State for Education and Fine Art has offices and officials charged with the administration of primary education both urban and rural.

Every locality regarded as a municipal district is included in the urban zone. According to the national census of 1950, 76% of the population lived in the rural zone.

### ORGANIZATION

Rural education comprises five years of study and urban education six years, followed by two years of intermediate education (7th and 8th years). As from this year, however, it is proposed to bring into force a seven-year curriculum for rural schools. With this in view syllabuses are being prepared for the intermediate rural school, to include a 6th and a 7th year. As a result rural education will be of almost the same duration as that of urban zones. Schooling is compulsory for all children from six to fourteen years.

The number of class hours per year is 630 (3½ per day).

According to statistics established in 1957, the number of enrolments (rural schools) was 174,774 for the first year, 77,321 for the second year, 30,197 for the third year, 11,152 for the fourth year and 3,388 for the fifth year. The regression finds its explanation in the fact that the literacy campaign vastly increased enrolments for the first-year classes. Moreover pupils in rural villages near towns may enrol in town schools after the first year.

The number of pupils per teacher varies according to the density of the population of each rural zone. There are teachers with 50 pupils arranged in two shifts, while others have up to 100, of whom 50 are taught in the morning and 50 in the afternoon.

There are no compulsory post-primary complementary courses. There are agricultural schools, which young people in rural areas prefer to attend, but they are not compulsory.

### CURRICULA, SYLLABUSES, METHODS

Curricula for rural teaching do not perceptibly differ from those for urban teaching except as regards agriculture, which figures in the 4th and 5th year syllabuses of rural schools, whilst only slight notions of this subject are taught in the 5th and 6th years in urban schools.

The number of hours devoted to the teaching of each subject is the same in the country and in towns.

Though schooling is compulsory from the age of six to fourteen, children in rural zones generally enrol at school later than those in the towns. For this reason the syllabus for each subject is fuller in the rural schools and the practical exercises more numerous.

There is no difference regarding methods and practices between rural and urban teaching, except for agriculture, botany and zoology, which are more developed in rural schools.

#### TEACHING STAFF

Teaching staff for rural primary schools are trained in rural training schools (there two of these in the Republic). Teachers for urban primary schools are trained in higher training schools (there are three of these in the country).

The length of study in rural training schools is two years, but teachers who leave these schools must follow a summer school each year to complete their professional training.

Before admission to the rural training school an applicant must have completed at least eight years of study. Further, as these schools are boarding schools with state bursaries, candidates must pass an entrance examination.

The law requires that to teach in a rural school a teacher must obtain the rural teacher's diploma. Permanent tenure of posts in rural schools is assured (except in cases of misconduct).

The salaries paid by the State to teachers in rural schools vary according to the category of the school. They amount to 60 Dominican pesos per month for teachers in ordinary schools and 80 for teachers in experimental rural schools (pilot schools). The salary for headmasters is 100 Dominican pesos. The Dominican peso is equivalent to a dollar.

A teacher qualified as a rural teacher may only teach in a rural school, but if he resigns to continue study in a higher training school and obtains the requisite certificate, he may then be transferred to an urban school.

#### ACTION AIMED AT PROVIDING EQUAL EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES

Methods of social assistance (canteens, clothing services, etc.) enjoyed by pupils in rural schools are the same as those for urban schools.

Not all rural schools have canteens (*desayuno escolar*), merely those situated in the poorest localities, where social assistance is necessary.

There are one-teacher schools in sparsely populated rural areas and schools with two, three, four and up to five teachers, according to requirements. In schools with more than one teacher it is possible to carry out the complete curriculum in five years. Children who have completed three years of study in a three-year one-teacher school may continue their education in a five-year school with several teachers.

There is a tendency to concentrate the school population in centres possessing one or several schools, a system which has the advantage of

permitting each class to have its own teacher. Children go daily from their homes to school and back by their own means. Up to 500 pupils are enrolled in these school centres.

#### MISCELLANEOUS

Documents attached to the reply :

- *Programas de la Educación primaria rural: Curso 1-5.* Three pamphlets. Secretaría de Estado de Educación y Bellas Artes.

## ECUADOR

*From the reply sent by the Ministry of Education*

### ADMINISTRATION

Rural schools are distributed throughout the 18 provinces of the continental territory and the Galapagos archipelago. They belong, together with the urban schools, to the 100 zones of the school inspectorate and to 5 *núcleos escolares rurales*, which come under the provincial departments of education.

Because of the great number of rural schools, there is in the Ministry of Education a department of rural education, specially for this type of education. Rural schools function in accordance with special directions, which guide pupils towards agricultural training and small scale industries. The schools benefit from the experience of the *núcleos escolares*, the syllabuses of which provide basic education. School inspectors impart information on the progress of educational techniques and are responsible for application and adaptation of such techniques to schools. They study the needs and the problems of basic education. Control of rural education is directed particularly to : (a) the development of methods appropriate to one-teacher schools (known as "unit schools"); (b) the preparation of curricula and syllabuses for rural schools in accordance with the general curriculum; (c) instituting social and economic inquiries affecting the communities so that development plans may be made; (d) organizing periodic courses for the assistance of rural teachers in their research work.

This policy is in conformity with the major project of Unesco for Latin America, ratified by the Lima Conference (1956).

Ecuador is a country in which the rural element is predominant, being composed of dispersed groups of Indians and people of mixed race. There are in Ecuador 1,831 rural communities consisting of Indians and people of mixed race, the population of which was estimated in January, 1957, at 2,749,790 inhabitants (71.47% of the total population). There are 3,505 rural schools out of a total of 4,625 primary schools (i.e. 78%). Their pupils number 244,785. There are 223,625 children of six to twelve who remain outside the school. The number of children who attend urban schools is 201,630.

The rural school engages in campaigns for basic education, especially literacy campaigns. The percentage of illiterates in the country is 54.4%.

The rural communities are poor, families having on an average five to six members who earn five to ten sucres per day.

### ORGANIZATION •

In accordance with the Constitution of the Republic and the basic education act, primary education is secular, compulsory and free.



Within this general framework, the aim assigned to the urban primary school is to make education of democratic character available to all children without distinction of social class.

The duration of study in the urban school is six years; there is a teacher for each class and a headmaster. The number of class hours is 1,152 per annum.

The number of pupils per teacher in urban schools is 33.

The urban school is subject to the living conditions of small and large towns. It follows academic methods rather too closely despite the modern educational experiments tending to reform teaching techniques. School libraries are being developed, in order to give pupils the habit of reading.

The rural school, which has developed since 1935, aims at agricultural training (with ground for experiments in cultivation). With this aim in view it seeks to raise the cultural, moral and intellectual level of the country child, on the basis of an agricultural training.

Rural schooling is compulsory and free; it covers children of 6 to 14 years; the duration of compulsory study is four years, but it will very shortly be extended to six years.

The number of class hours per year and per day are the same as those in urban schools.

Each teacher has 46 pupils divided into different classes, which imposes application by the Ministry of a didactic system appropriate to this simultaneous teaching.

Further, many rural schools have land available and tend to become farm-schools; the resources of the environment are made use of as teaching material and methods are based on direct observation.

Apart from secondary establishments (general education, technical and vocational education, teacher training schools), complementary post-primary courses are numerous, forming departments of rural schools in large centres. Many of these courses have a regular three-year syllabus leading to an overseer's diploma. Women's occupations and domestic economy are included in these courses.

Agricultural vocational schools are few in number; there are only three under the Ministry of Economics and one depending on the Inter-american Cooperative Service for Agriculture.

### CURRICULA, SYLLABUSES, METHODS

Following the reform of curricula and syllabuses, which took place in September, 1955, teaching has been unified throughout the whole country and the same syllabuses are applied in urban and in rural schools, always, as already seen, taking local characteristics into account. This introduction of a uniform system was aimed at the development of a national civic spirit and the formation of a national type of Ecuadorian.

As regards the content of the subjects taught, the syllabus makes no important distinction between the two types of school.

As far as methods are concerned, these present certain differences, due to the fact that in the rural school the teacher is in charge of up to four classes and that it is essential to take into account the environment and ethnical composition of the school, while the urban school has a teacher

for each class, the school population is more homogeneous, libraries are available and the people are more or less interested in the progress of education.

### TEACHING STAFF

Urban teacher training schools follow a curriculum comprising fundamental study of the child as well as scientific subjects calculated to provide a good training for future teachers. The curricula and syllabuses of rural training schools are perceptibly different, being aimed at rural education, with agricultural techniques and subjects related to the life of the rural community, such as rural sociology, the study of small scale industries and agricultural economy.

The length of study in rural training schools is four years. It will shortly be extended to six years, as is already the case in the rural training school at Uyumbicho. The urban training school admits intending teachers from rural training schools to specialized courses which enable them later to complete their studies in the faculties of philosophy, arts and educational science at the universities of Quito and Guayaquil, in order to obtain the secondary teaching diploma and the doctorate, like pupils from urban training schools.

The diplomas required for appointment of primary school teachers are: (a) a baccalaureate in the science of education, equivalent to the diploma of the urban training school; (b) the diploma of the rural training school. However, appointments are made by provincial boards of education with the authorization of the Ministry of Education in the case of candidates not so highly qualified. Teachers of this category are not numerous.

To teach in an urban school it is necessary to have completed at least two years as teacher in a rural school. This contributes to the progress of schools in rural areas and provides urban teachers with useful experience. A teacher holding the diploma of the rural training school may obtain increases of salary in the rural school in which he teaches, but it is rare for such a teacher to obtain an appointment in an urban school. On the other hand, a teacher holding the urban training school diploma may teach in any school in the Republic; this obviously gives him wider scope.

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### ACTION AIMED AT EQUAL EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES

In general, the state social service in rural schools has been in existence for several years. Credits are provided for school canteens and the Treasury distributes school materials. Dental and medical services exist in the provincial chief towns and vaccination is carried out in rural schools. Social welfare centres have clothing and nutrition services the expenses of which are defrayed by the Ministry of Welfare. During recent years, rural schools have received milk for school breakfasts from Unicef. In view of the growing need of such services, the government is constantly seeking to meet requirements.

There are in the country 2,716 one-teacher schools, with three and four classes. Besides these, 789 schools with a small staff (two, three

and four teachers) are to be found, mostly in the small concentrations of Indians and people of mixed race; they include for the most part complementary courses for training in manual trades. One-teacher schools represent 77.4% of all schools. As regards method, teachers in one-teacher schools practise simultaneous teaching. The technique of simultaneous teaching raises important problems and efforts are being made to solve these on the national plane.

Since 1947, *núcleos escolares de experimentación técnica* have been in operation. They organize periodic demonstrations in rural communities. These *núcleos* possess a central school, as well as a rural training school. Their aim is to stimulate and direct the schools attached to them. These centralized schools for which the Ministry of Education grants scholarships or food supplies are boarding schools.

There may be mentioned, on the other hand, the *colonias de recuperación física*, supported by the Ministry of Social Welfare, which are residential and the pupils of which are brought from the coast to the Sierra and vice versa to enjoy the benefit of a special diet.

Rural schools do not use either school broadcasting or teaching by correspondence.

On the fringe of public education there are clubs which contribute to agricultural training and are supported by the Interamerican Cooperative Service for Agriculture.

#### MISCELLANEOUS

Document attached to the reply :

- *Plan de estudios y programas para las escuelas graduadas*. Ministerio de Educación. Quito, 1955. 335 p.

# EGYPT

*From the reply sent by the Ministry of Education*

## INTRODUCTION : HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

In 1911 the provincial councils in Egypt established farm schools in order to provide the sons of farmers with practical courses in agriculture. This type of school was not, however, received with much interest and the councils abolished it in 1924.

In 1916 the Ministry of Education adopted a scheme whereby two types of programme would be adopted : one for schools in rural areas and the other for those in urban areas. The fact that the primary school programme emphasized the practical aspect of training served as an auxiliary factor in the adoption of this bilateral system. These schools continued to operate till 1925 when those catering for boys were abolished while those for girls remained till 1952.

In 1941, the Modern Education Association and the Egyptian Association for Social Studies tried to establish schools for rural education which would draw, in the development of their programmes, on the resources of the village and the farm and on all the problems related thereto. One such school was established on an experimental basis, after which the Ministry attempted to adopt a similar plan for its schools, but it soon realized that it had first to train the type of teacher who can work in these schools. So it began to abolish them and set up schools for rural teacher training. These schools, established in 1947, are still operating and are undergoing expansion.

Although the Ministry is now adopting a policy under which primary education programmes are unified for rural and urban schools alike, other agencies are taking over the task of disseminating agricultural knowledge in rural areas. One such agency is the Unesco Arab states fundamental education centre at Sirsellaayan which gives mission members from the Arab states training in the arts of rural leadership and reform. The Ministry of Social Affairs is also setting up a number of vocational training centres while the Young Farmers' Association provides training for leadership in rural areas.

Lastly, the Ministry of Education training department is organizing courses to provide teachers in agricultural schools with practical training in rural crafts and industries. These teachers will, when trained, undertake the task of disseminating agricultural knowledge in rural areas.

## ADMINISTRATION

The same administrative body within the Ministry of Education is responsible for all primary schools, both urban and rural. A special branch of the Ministry (general agricultural education department) supervises agricultural schools (preparatory and secondary).

An area is regarded as rural if the principal occupation of the inhabitants is agriculture and simple agricultural industries. A school is regarded as rural if its curriculum is predominantly concerned with horticulture and farm work and if the school has a farm and shop attached to it.

The population of rural areas constitutes 3/4 of the total population of Egypt. The total population of Egypt is 22,800,000, the rural population 17,100,000.

### ORGANIZATION

As regards the aims of education in rural areas, the primary education law No. 213, 1956, provides for uniformity of education in the primary stage and authorizes the Minister of Education to issue an order adding such further subjects as may be required by the school community. It also provides that schools shall organize their free activities in such a way as to suit the school environment and pupils.

Agricultural education, whether preparatory or secondary, is somewhat different from general education, industrial education, commercial education and feminine education which are located in urban areas. None of these types of preparatory and secondary education are compulsory.

The compulsory education stage is six years in the primary school whether in urban or rural areas. It begins at the age of six and no child is allowed to stay on at the primary school after the age of 14.

Agricultural preparatory education is not compulsory. The number of years covered, i.e. 3 years after the end of the primary stage, is the same as for all the other types of preparatory education (preparatory education law No. 55, 1957).

Agricultural secondary education is not compulsory. The number of years covered, i.e. 3 years after the end of the preparatory stage, is the same as for all the other types of secondary education.

The number of hours' instruction covered by a primary class is approximately 1,120 per annum. The number of hours' instruction is the same in all primary schools, rural or urban, all over the country.

The number of hours' instruction in agricultural preparatory and secondary education is approximately 1,280 per annum.

Each class receives 6 hours of teaching daily (primary schools, preparatory and secondary agricultural schools).

The proportion of registered children in primary schools in the age group 6-12 to the total child population according to the 1956-1957 statistics is as follows :

	Total population 6-12 years	No. registered	%
Boys . . . . .	1,795,000	1,371,917	74.7%
Girls . . . . .	1,745,000	783,089	44.8%
Total	3,550,000	2,155,006	60 %

In agricultural schools the total child population in the 12-18 age group is 1,601,300. The number registered in agricultural preparatory schools is 2,368 (0.16%) and in agricultural secondary schools 4,370 (0.16%).

The average number of pupils per teacher (according to the 1956-1957 statistics) is as follows : primary education 38, agricultural preparatory education 15, agricultural secondary education 14.

The compulsory education programme does not include any continuation courses after the primary stage. However all types of preparatory and secondary school (agricultural, commercial, industrial, feminine and general) cater for those who have completed their primary education whether in rural areas or elsewhere.

#### CURRICULA, SYLLABUSES, METHODS

In primary schools, syllabuses are the same for schools located in urban and rural areas, with the exception of horticulture, farm industries and handicrafts. The number of hours allotted to each subject is the same.

Courses in agricultural preparatory schools (mostly in rural areas) and in agricultural secondary schools (mostly in urban areas) are different from courses in other types of preparatory and secondary schools (commercial, general and girls' schools). In all agricultural preparatory and secondary schools the subjects taught and the number of hours allotted to them are the same.

General instructions on method are the same, but specific directions regarding rural subjects are different.

Textbooks are the same for each type of school (i.e. agricultural, commercial, industrial or girls' schools).

#### TEACHING STAFF

Rural teachers are trained at rural teacher training schools (9 schools by October, 1957, out of a total of 25 teacher training schools). A scheme is being contemplated, however, whereby teacher training schools will be ruralized so that the ratio of rural to urban teacher training schools may become 3 : 1. Entrance requirements and length of studies are the same. The general aims of rural teacher training are not different from those of urban teacher training. There are, however, certain differences in specific directives. Syllabuses are the same with the exception of agricultural and practical subjects.

Equal opportunities are offered for refresher courses and in-service training programmes.

Qualification requirements for employment and gross salaries are the same for all teachers.

Opportunities for transfer between rural and urban schools are equal.

#### ACTION AIMED AT PROVIDING EQUAL EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES

No type of education, at any level, is granted any privileges with regard to social assistance, in the form of meals, clothing or subsidies.

In rural teacher training schools, however, most of the pupils are boarders, and full board and education are provided free of charge. Boarding facilities are available in women's teacher training schools at a fee of £12 per year. Such facilities are not available in urban teacher training schools.

The one-teacher school system is not used in Egypt owing to the fact that Egyptian villages stand in groups and are densely populated. A rural school usually contains 6 or more classes.

The central rural school catering for children from a number of rural areas is not common in Egypt. The class teacher system applies in all primary schools in the first four years only. There are no primary boarding schools.

School broadcasting is not an integral part of the school programme and no correspondence system is used for educating children in isolated areas. School broadcasting is, however, available as an extra-curricular activity in certain schools.

Egyptian State Broadcasting offers a regular weekly programme for the rural population.

# FINLAND

*From the reply sent by the Ministry of Education*

## ADMINISTRATION

There is no special administrative body for rural schools.

The inspectors of rural primary schools come under the State and those of urban primary schools under the municipality concerned. Otherwise they have identical status.

Besides this, each school district has its own school boards which direct and supervise their school. Rural primary school boards may consist of six members elected by the local council and a representative of the teaching profession.

All rural areas have to be divided into school districts, so arranged that the distance between the homes of the pupils and the nearest primary school does not exceed 5 Kms. At times several districts may be combined in one provided that transport for pupils or boarding facilities are available. Distribution of secondary schools must likewise fulfil these conditions.

At the end of 1956, 64.5% of the population lived in rural regions.

## ORGANIZATION

At primary level the aim of education is everywhere the same.

The curriculum of continuation courses must comprise subjects and practical exercises closely related to the particular features of the environment.

The duration of compulsory schooling is the same everywhere (ages 7 to 16).

The enrolment percentage is 98 to 99% of the total population of school age. The average number of pupils per teacher is twenty-seven.

The primary school properly so called is completed by compulsory continuation courses generally lasting two years. At times there is even a local secondary school to complete the primary school course.

## CURRICULA, SYLLABUSES, METHODS

As already stated, the underlying principles of primary education are the same everywhere and continuation courses are adapted to the environment in the case of certain subjects.

The curricula of each primary school are drawn up by the headmaster in collaboration with the teachers. They are then approved by the local school council and endorsed by the inspector. Under these conditions the number of hours assigned to each subject may vary slightly.

The syllabus content of each subject is the same everywhere.

Suggestions or directions relating to methods to be employed are essentially the same in town and country.



For arithmetic and science, textbooks for town and country schools are different, because the problems and phenomena used by way of illustration are borrowed from the environment.

The training of rural and urban school teachers is the same and is given in the same establishments. They require the same diplomas for admission to these establishments. They have thereafter the same possibilities of further professional training.

Conditions of appointment are identical.

Official salaries prescribed by law are the same. However, rural teachers are generally entitled to lodging at a reduced price. Many towns and some rural communes pay teachers a salary exceeding the prescribed legal minimum.

Transfer from town to country and vice versa is possible.

#### ACTION AIMED AT PROVIDING EQUAL EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES

Children in rural zones are, like those in urban zones, entitled to a free school meal. The children of indigent parents have everywhere the benefit of a clothing allowance.

In 1956-1957, there were about 1,000 one-teacher schools in the country. Their number is constantly decreasing. There is a tendency to concentrate continuation courses, and the secondary schools which are at times attached to primary schools, in school centres situated in the locality. To do so, as already seen, it is necessary to organize daily transport or the boarding school system. In general the former is preferred and boarding of pupils is resorted to only where transport is impracticable, for pupils whose homes are too far distant.

All pupils attend school, which makes replacement of direct teaching by broadcasting or by correspondence superfluous.

## FRANCE

*From the reply sent by the National Institute of Education*

### ADMINISTRATION

The operation of rural schools is governed by the same legislation as that which governs urban schools. In the system of general education, no zone distinction is made between urban and rural areas.

It follows that as regards administration there are no special provisions governing compulsory primary education in rural zones.

Of the 38,000 French communes there are almost 24,000 localities with less than 500 inhabitants each and about 8,000 with from 500 to 1,000 inhabitants each.

The rural population (communes of less than 2,000 inhabitants) constitutes 47% of the total population.

### ORGANIZATION

As regards the length of compulsory education and of the school year, the weekly number of class hours, the arrangement of holidays, the number of pupils per teacher, etc., rural primary schools do not differ in principle from urban primary schools.

Permission may, however, at the request of persons responsible, be granted by the academy inspector to certain pupils to absent themselves for a period not exceeding eight weeks. These are children of twelve years or over who are employed in agricultural work or with the maritime fishing fleet; to obtain such permission they must satisfy certain conditions as to regular attendance and the standard of their work.

Post-school courses in agriculture and in "agricultural and domestic science" are provided for farmers' sons and daughters aged from 14 to 17 who do not take other courses.

This training, which is compulsory and free, occupies 120 hours a year during a period of three years. Lessons are given in the evening or on Thursdays, and even Sundays.

These courses, which provide both technical and general instruction, are intended to improve, by means of elementary training, local practices in the various branches of agriculture. It is considered that the vocational training of the farmer should be not only of a practical nature but at the same time a complete initiation to rural life.

At the end of the third year, young men may obtain the certificate granted for post-school agricultural study, the girls the certificate for post-school study in agriculture and domestic science.

This instruction at primary level may be given in agricultural continuation courses or in the agricultural sections of ordinary continuation courses. It is under the technical control of the Ministry of

Agriculture, while the responsible authority is the Ministry of National Education.

Such instruction can be given by specially qualified primary masters and mistresses, who are holders of the teacher's certificate for post-school agricultural training or the teacher's certificate for post-school training in agriculture and domestic science.

#### CURRICULA, SYLLABUSES, METHODS

No differences exist between official syllabuses for rural schools and those for urban schools. As regards, however, science syllabuses for the final year in rural schools, a study was made both in 1947 and 1953 concerning *inter alia* the adapting of the syllabus to the environment.

The instructions issued in 1953 by the Ministry specify very clearly the character which is to be given to science teaching in the final year at rural schools: "the facts to be studied must be taken from the environment, that is, from the domain of agriculture". The intention is to integrate primary education with the post-school courses in agriculture and agriculture and domestic science.

The weekly number of class hours for science and practical work is five. The syllabuses differ from those for the final year at urban schools notably in respect of:

(1) man and his environment—the rural habitation—study of the house and outbuildings of a rural concern in the area; modernization as regards ventilation, lighting, heating, water supply, etc.;

(2) human activities—land and its produce; the soil, cattle raising, the modernization of agriculture.

Special textbooks on applied science are therefore published for use in the final year in rural schools. Differences concern more particularly the syllabus items referred to above.

Generally speaking, with regard to the other subjects and other branches of primary education, the teaching must be concrete and give a large place to rural life. Consequently, ordinary practice work at school and the tests for the primary school certificate relate as a rule to country topics.

At their departmental meetings the academy inspectors decide upon the changes necessary for adapting syllabuses to local conditions.

#### TEACHING STAFF

All masters and mistresses in public schools receive the same basic training without any distinction as to zones, in primary teacher training schools; syllabuses are the same, as is also the period of training (2 years).

No particular qualifications are required for admission. On the one hand, local recruitment for training schools, particularly of pupils from rural areas, encourages to a large extent the attachment of teachers to the village. On the other hand, much attention is given in the teachers' training to the rural side, not only because all teachers may be called upon to occupy posts in the country, but also because towns of average importance still retain much of the rural spirit.

Intending teachers receive a fairly extensive training in agriculture and horticulture, with a considerable amount of practical work in school gardens or on demonstration farms.

Teachers of elementary primary classes may be appointed without difficulty to either urban or rural schools and, subject to the existence of vacancies as well as to competition from other teachers, be transferred from one type of school to another according to their wishes.

Salaries as laid down in the State budget are identical for all primary masters and mistresses teaching anywhere in Metropolitan France and vary only according to grade and duties. The sole differences in rates are due to the granting of living allowances, which are calculated on the basic salary and on the salary zone.

Public authorities and professional organizations have established institutions and other facilities for encouraging the further professional training of rural teachers; the education libraries operating in the chief centres of the canton or district represent an example.

The National Institute of Education with its various services enables teachers in the provinces to keep abreast of activities in the field of French education and to employ the teaching material necessary in their work. For these teachers the Institute organizes a circulating library, conferences and refresher courses, publishes pamphlets, articles and magazines; it also provides research, information and documentation services in addition to publishing for rural teachers the review *L'enseignement agricole*.

As for the professional organizations, they arrange numerous refresher and study courses, at the same time encouraging contacts between teachers.

#### ACTION AIMED AT PROVIDING EQUAL EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES

As regards social assistance, steps such as the free provision of pupil transport, school meals and school materials either have been introduced, or are about to be so. Expenses connected with pupil transport as well as with the installation and operation of meal services are borne by the communes, which receive state grants. The complete programme of facilities should assist rural families in particular to benefit from the opportunities of advancement which are offered to their children.

The purpose of "school funds" existing in all communes is to facilitate and encourage attendance at official schools. The school fund is not a welfare institution but a public institution which exists for the benefit of schools. Its income is from the subscriptions and donations of private people, from communal, departmental and state subsidies as well as from collections, fêtes and various events organized in its favour.

Fund monies are used for rewarding diligent pupils, for assisting needy ones and for arranging excursions, travel, holiday camps, etc.

Then there is the "school cooperative", which, benefiting from the teacher's direct influence, is of all the organizations set up in connection with the school the one that provides the most effective aid. Its funds (subscriptions, donations, school events, harvest proceeds, cattle raising, the work of pupil members) are employed for the purchase of anything capable of rendering teaching and education more efficient and for meeting any expenditure made in the cause of mutual aid.

The number of classes depends upon the number of pupils (40 pupils are considered the maximum for one class). Consequently, in the country there are many one-class schools (less than 40 pupils).

Without counting hamlet schools there are over 24,000 co-educational schools which have only one master or mistress; they are attended by the children of one commune or hamlet who are liable for compulsory schooling, i.e. aged from six to fourteen and sometimes younger (from the age of five).

With regard to the concentration of rural schools, under the proposals for educational reform which are now being studied, provision is made for an extension of the schooling period. The oldest pupils (from 11 to 13) will be required to attend "intermediate schools" with classes which will be comprised of all the pupils who formerly attended several small schools and which will be equipped with every necessary facility, in particular, with a garden, workrooms, domestic science rooms, demonstration plots of ground, etc.

In large centres these schools will be communal, while in sparsely populated areas they will serve more than one commune.

The systems of boarding schools and of providing daily transport will both be adopted, though neither exclusively, according to the areas and dwelling conditions.

The services rendered by correspondence teaching and by school broadcasting are not especially intended for the education of children in isolated areas, as under the French educational system the communes are required to provide schools.

Nevertheless, school broadcasting and television do supplement, in a way much appreciated by teachers and pupils, the teaching given in rural schools.

#### MISCELLANEOUS

A note will be found below on the post-school courses in agriculture and in agriculture and domestic science.

It should be noted that there are also continuation courses with an agricultural or agriculture and domestic science bias.

These courses, given at a level which is intermediate between post-school agricultural training (elementary level) on the one hand, and technical and higher agricultural training on the other, prepare those who, informed as to new legislation and methods, are able to benefit during their working careers from the advice of technicians and engineers. In connection with these continuation courses there is, owing to the setting up of a good-offices committee, close collaboration with the Directorate of Agricultural Services and with agricultural interests.

As regards the subjects taught in these courses, particular attention has been given to instruction in civics, handwork and science.

Civics is taught largely through the study of the local economy and of economic structures. Instruction in manual activities is essentially a multi-purpose introductory training as the continuation course in agriculture is not intended to prepare specialized workers but farmers and housekeepers capable of surmounting the various problems of daily life.

### NOTE ON AGRICULTURAL TRAINING AT PRIMARY LEVEL

Agricultural training at primary level (primary schools and continuation courses; post-school courses in agriculture and agriculture and domestic science; winter agricultural schools; seasonal agricultural schools; agriculture and domestic science schools; agricultural training centres) provides elementary instruction in the various branches of agriculture without obliging pupils to leave home.

It was noted above that in rural primary schools the science syllabuses for the final year have an agricultural bias.

In the same way, syllabuses for rural continuation courses should be adapted to local needs; training in agriculture is given in the agricultural divisions.

### POST-SCHOOL COURSES IN AGRICULTURE AND IN AGRICULTURE AND DOMESTIC SCIENCE

The object of these courses is both educational and technical : to give boys and girls who intend taking up agriculture further general education and a practical vocational training.

The courses are compulsory for boys and girls who do not continue other studies after the age of 14 (the end of the period of compulsory primary schooling) and whose parents' occupation is agricultural. This post-school compulsory period terminates at the age of 17 and thus covers three years. The annual number of hours' instruction, to be given between the beginning of October and the 15th June, is 120.

Post-school courses in agriculture and agriculture and domestic science are free and instruction is given by specially qualified primary teachers. On completion, boys receive a post-school agriculture certificate and girls a post-school agriculture and domestic science certificate.

In certain specified communes a centre for post-school training in agriculture or agriculture and domestic science is attached to the public primary school; it is the academy inspector who, on the proposal of the departmental council for post-school agricultural training, specifies these communes.

For post-school training in agriculture and agriculture and domestic science there are three different types of centres :

(a) The non-specialized post-school centre serving one commune. It is self-sufficient by reason of its nature and involves a fixed non-specialist teaching post.

This teacher deals with ordinary general subjects in an elementary primary school.

The post-school instruction is given only to pupils belonging to the commune and takes place on Thursdays during the daytime, or, on other days, in the evening.

(b) The non-specialized post-school centre serving more than one commune. It serves a kind of small district grouping at least two communes but generally four or five.

The teacher in charge of this centre is engaged at the school of one of the communes in teaching ordinary general subjects. He takes his

post-school agricultural classes in one of the communes on Thursdays or even Sundays.

As post-school training in agriculture and agriculture and domestic science involves 120 teaching hours each year, from the beginning of October to the 15th June (approximately 6 hours per week), the teachers at the (a) and (b) types of centre give 30 hours' instruction in primary schools and 6 hours of post-school instruction per week.

(c) The specialized post-school centre serving more than one commune. It serves a large district grouping five normal districts and thus embraces from twenty to twenty-five communes. The teacher in charge of the centre belongs for financial purposes to one of these communes, in general the principal commune of one of the five districts. Instruction is given in each district's principal commune in turn. Generally speaking it is the teacher who moves about, and as a result he is called a travelling teacher.

There are, however, districts in which the pupils do the travelling, the teacher in charge of post-school agricultural instruction taking his pupils at the centre. In this case the post is stationary.

The teacher (man or woman) at this type of centre does not do any primary teaching but devotes the whole of his time to the post-school instruction in agriculture or agriculture and domestic science.

The commune, being responsible for providing the necessary plant and equipment, including a school garden, is required to meet the costs of both installation and operation.

In the case of the centre which serves several communes, expenses are shared by the communes on a population basis. The Prefect is responsible for the apportionment.

Grants up to a maximum of 20% of the necessary expenditure may be allocated by the State for both the initial installation and the operation. These grants are paid to the commune which administers the centre. In order to receive a subsidy the latter is required to prepare and forward to the Minister an estimate in the prescribed form.

Post-school instruction in agriculture and agriculture and domestic science is given by primary masters and mistresses who are holders of the post-school agricultural training teacher's certificate or of the teacher's certificate for post-school training in agriculture and domestic science.

Recognized equivalents of these two certificates are :

(a) of the first : the diploma of agriculture ; the final teaching certificate of an agricultural training section; the teacher's certificate of the former E.P.S.;

(b) of the second : the agriculture and domestic science diploma; the final teaching certificate of an agriculture and domestic science section.

In the absence of teachers with the required certificates or diplomas, recourse may be had, as an exceptional and temporary measure, to teachers recommended by the academy inspector. Such action is only taken on the advice of the primary inspector and on the proposal of the Director of Agricultural Services.\*

As regards special subjects, instruction is entrusted to qualified persons or to skilled workers nominated by the academy inspector. The agreement of the Director of Agricultural Services is necessary.